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ABSTRACT

The document explains the need for holistic social studies teaching methods, proposes a holistic model for use in a fourth grade social studies class, and places the model within the general context of social studies education. A holistic method is defined as a way of teaching which is cognitively and affectively integrated with individual development. The paper is presented in seven chapters. Chapter I traces social studies curriculum development from 1900 to the 1970s. Chapter II traces the development of a general psychology of cognition and affect with emphasis on research by psychologists Jean Piaget, Abraham Maslow, and Carl Rogers. Chapters III and IV compare the cognitively-oriented psychology of Piaget with the affectively-oriented psychology of Maslow and relates both movements to education. Chapter V presents a model of an holistic social studies unit and illustrates it by activities designed for a fourth grade unit on early California Indians. Information is presented on arrangement of the classroom environment to enhance the unit, activities (simulations, reading assignments, note taking, class discussion, and library research), and evaluation procedures. Chapter VI analyzes cognitive and affective functions of the model. Chapter VII identifies cognitive and affective criteria used to evaluate classroom experience with the model. The document concludes with appendices including the monograph "Social Studies Techniques," by Helen Doolin, upon which the holistic model is based. (DB)

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CALIFORNIA LUTHERAN COLLEGE

# A HOLISTIC APPROACH TO THE SOCIAL STUDIES

A Thesis Submitted to
The Faculty of the Department of Education
In Candidacy for the Degree of
Master of Arts in Education

By

Bonnie Davidson

Thousand Oaks, California

January 1977

SO 012 455

The Thesis of Bonnie Davidson is approved:

Committee Chairman

January 1977

California Lutheran College, Thousand Oaks, CA

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## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The social studies teaching method used as an illustrative model of the thesis of this paper is based upon Helen P. Doolin's monograph, "Social Studies Techniques", 1969, and upon her personal supervision of the writer in learning to teach this method. The illustrative model is also based upon a social studies teachers' guide entitled Early California, permission for the use of which was granted by the Ventura County, California, Board of Education. The writer is also indebted to Dr. Elsie M. Fenn of the Department of Education of California Lutheran College for her guidance in the preparation of this paper.

January 31, 1977

PUBLICATION OPTION

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ABSTRACT

A Holistic Approach to the Social Studies

by

Bonnie Davidson

The central problem of education, in the writer's view, is how to construct curricula which conform maturationally and organismically to the human cognitive and affective development. The thesis of this paper is that the most successful curriculum or teaching method is one which is cognitively and affectively integrated, or, to use the writer's term, holistic.

This paper presents one such holistic method of teaching social studies, as developed by a group of Ventura County teachers over many years, and then analyzes it in terms of two sets of psychologies--a cognitively oriented psychology as represented by Piaget, and an affectively oriented psychology as represented by Maslow, Rogers, and others. The paper concludes with a narrative of the writer's own classroom experience in teaching this holistic method, attempting to show points of coincidence between the classroom experience and the two sets of psychologies, and, in the process, presenting evidence for her own thesis that the most successful teaching is holistic, i.e., cognitively and affectively integrated.

Briefly described, the illustrative teaching model is a sequence of integrated activities for teaching social studies

by means of a dramatic representation of a historical period. The sequential activities are: (1) dramatization of a story drawn from historical records of a given period of history; (2) committee work oriented to constructing properties and scenery for a fuller dramatic representation; (3) research into written and non-written records of this period, and also field research; (4) construction of properties and scenery using school-furnished media and found materials for simulation of historically available materials; (5) culmination of the foregoing activities in the form of a dramatic representation of the historical period studied, using properties and scenery; and (6) brief inquiry and conceptualization period.

For ease of evaluation of the above teaching method in light of the cognitive and affective psychologies, the writer has distilled fourteen criteria for a hypothetical teaching model, six cognitive and eight affective criteria in all. Briefly summarized, the six cognitive criteria derived from Piaget's works are: (1) stage development of intelligence; (2) need and interest of the pupil; (3) operativity, or thought arising from activity; (4) autonomy of the pupil; (5) reciprocity between pupils; and (6) personality, or decentering of the ego as a result of the foregoing spontaneous processes of cognitive development. The eight affective, or holistic-dynamic criteria for a hypothetical teaching model, are: (1) gratification of the need for security; (2) gratification of the need for belongingness; (3) gratification of the need for esteem; (4) gratification of the need to know and understand; (5) gratification of the

need for self-actualization; (6) gratification of the need for creativity and peak experiences; (7) holistic socialization; and (8) holistic functioning of the organism. It will be seen that these criteria are constituted of Maslow's need hierarchy and the Rogerian concept of full functioning.

The fourteen criteria derive their validity from their origins in both scientific and phenomenological research, i.e., from Piaget's empirical study of the thought processes of young children in his search for the origins of inte ligence in the human species; and also from the clinical observations of Maslow, Rogers, and others, in their study of persons emerging from psychotherapy and psychoanalysis, and their consequent formulations of hypotheses regarding laws of personality.

After reviewing the writer's classroom experience in light of these criteria, it is her conclusion that this intuitively developed method of teaching social studies does have a considerable degree of congruence with what the writer terms holistic, or cognitively and affectively integrated, psychology, within an academic context.

The writer feels that her thesis needs validation, revision, and amplification by others. The illustrative model itself can be used by teachers at the fourth grade level, or at other grade levels using the Ventura County, California, pre-1970 social studies teacher guides. Their experience can then be validative of the fourteen criteria, or form the basis of their own social studies criteria. Alternatively, teachers can evaluate their own unique, perhaps widely varying, methods

in light of these fourteen criteria for evidence of holistic orientation. However, beyond validation of these particular criteria and the writer's thesis as to holistic social studies teaching, the writer feels that all successful teaching methods have some psychological premises undergirding them, whether or not holistic, and that a wide-scale examination of good teaching experiences ought to uncover some underlying principles which unite them. In this uncovering process, that which is of value in the classroom process can be integrated into existing pedagogical theory, which is thereby enriched, refined, and sophisticated, to the end that a science of education can begin to develop, as envisaged by Piaget. The writer feels that the best chances for such a science of education lie in collaboration of classroom teachers on an equal basis with psychological and pedagogical theoreticians, researchers, and curriculum designers.

Therefore, the writer offers this thesis as one paradigm of pedagogical research for teachers, teacher training institutions, curriculum designers, and social science researchers, as well as for psychologists in general. This paradigm presents a dual approach to hypothesis development: (1) beginning with accumulation and examination of individual classroom experiences of teachers using a variety of methods; and (2) examining these experiences in light of what is considered good education by all segments of the society, including teachers, educators, parents, psychologists, social scientists, natural scientists, etc. Through this interaction of theory and practice in a circular

dynamic, new hypotheses and new practices can be generated. Piaget envisages a body of hypotheses, a science of education, of which the teacher can avail himself to invent successful teaching methods. In short, the teacher would then have an individualized teaching practice similar to the individualized practice of doctors who have a body of medical theory, or of lawyers who have a body of law, which they can interpret individually.

The writer's intention, in attempting to integrate particular psychological theories with her classroom experience in teaching a particular method, is to stress the teacher's need for a general psychology of cognition and affect, such as Piaget urges, in order for such a science of education to develop. Social studies, with its potential for wide application in the areas of cognitive and affective functioning, is particularly adapted for illustration of the need for a general psychology of cognition and affect.

# INTRODUCTION

## Inspiration for Thesis

Briefly stated, the writer's thesis is that the best teaching is holistic, i.e., cognitively and affectively integrated. This thesis is a product of reflection upon the reasons for the success of the writer's classroom experience in teaching social studies for two years using the pre-1970 Ventura County, California, social studies guides. As a result of surveying the literature of educational psychology and other more general literature in genetic psychology and holistic-dynamic psychology, the writer has found direct connections between these theories and the intuitively developed method of sequential integrated activities which is here used as an illustrative model for a holistic theory of pedagogy.

It is possible that the teacher-theoreticians who evolved this holistic method did so intuitively because they had been teaching the whole child for many years. The names of these teachers appear on the first page of Appendix B, an excerpt from a fourth-grade social studies guide entitled Early California, published by the Ventura County Board of Education in 1962, permission for inclusion of which constitutes Appendix A to this work.

In addition, the writer is indebted to Helen P. Doolin, her personal instructor in the use of the integrated activities

method, and author of a detailed teacher's guide to this method entitled "Social Studies Techniques", copyrighted in 1969. Permission to use this work as the basis of Chapter V is contained herein as Appendix C. Both the pre-1970 social studies guides and Doolin's "Social Studies Techniques" are available through the Ventura Count, Schools Library, Ventura, California.

## Statement of the Problem

The central problem this paper attacks is one which Pribram and Piaget have posed regarding education: how to construct curricula which conform both maturationally and organismically to the human cognitive and psychic development. (Karl H. Pribram, "Neurological Notes on the Art of Educating", Theories of Learning and Instruction, 1964, p. 79; and Piaget, 1970, p. 151) This paper provides one solution to this problem by presenting in Chapters V and VI a classroom-tested method of teaching social studies which meets these requirements. The sequential integrated activities method is analyzed in light of the central hypotheses of developmental psychologists Jean Piaget and the holistic-dynamic psychologists Abraham H. Maslow and Carl R. Rogers, and others. These psychologies, which are examined in Chapters II, III, and IV, represent an attempt to define human nature in terms other than the purely behavioristic or the purely Freudian.

## The Holistic-Dynamic Psychologies and the Scientific Method

In order to analyze and synthesize human nature by some viewpoint other than the associationist, the behavioristic, or

the purely Freudian, the question arises as to the nature of alternative theories of personality, and the nature of proof for these theories. The relationship of the scientific method to the hypotheses of Maslow and Rogers is discussed in Chapters II and IV. One tool for holistic personality analysis, called "iteration", describes the sort of process the writer worked through in arriving at a clearer understanding of the dynamics of this successful classroom experience. Maslow defines iteration as follows:

> Starting with a vague grasped whole, we analyze its structure into subdivisions, parts, etc. Through this analysis we discover difficulties with our original concept of the whole. The whole is then reorganized, redefined, rephrased more exactly and more efficiently, and is, as before, subjected to analysis. Again this analysis makes possible a better, more precise whole, and so on.
>
> (Maslow, 1970, pp. 151, 299)

The writer began with a "vague grasped whole"--her total sense of the classroom experience of the sequential integrated activities method over a period of two years, and proceeded to analyze this totality from the standpoint of the scope and sequence of activities (Chapter V), and also through definition of cognitive/affective functions evoked by these activities (Chapter VI). The data of this analysis was then referred back to psychological theory as defined in Chapters II, II, and IV, for points of correspondence.

In this manner the "vague grasped whole" with which

the writer began--her sense of a total experience--was thus analyzed and synthesized in terms of the developmental psychology of Piaget and the holistic-dynamic psychologies of Maslow, Rogers, and others. Chapter VII consists of illustration by examples from the writer's classrooom experience of the various cognitive and affective pedagogical criteria delineated in Chapters III and IV. The conclusion from this research is the thesis that the sequential activities method is a successful teaching method because it is holistic, i.e., cognitively and affectively integrated, in accordance with the several psychopedagogical criteria. These criteria are ultimately derived from the empirical sources of their respective psychologies--in the one case Piaget's experimental research into the intellectual development of children, and in the other case the clinical observations of Maslow, Rogers, Horney, and others, in their psychotherapeutic practice and personality theory formation.

In addition to experimentation with the illustrative model by other teachers, it would be helpful to teachers to examine their own unique, successful teaching methods in light of the fourteen criteria delineated in Chapters III and IV, in order to substantiate or revise the writer's central thesis regarding holism in psychopedagogical theory and practice. Failure to obtain favorable results would not necessarily invalidate the holistic thesis, but would add data for further research.

## Limitations of the Work

While the writer does not feel qualified by education

to definitively identify and integrate cognitive and affective psychological theory in light of pedagogical needs, she has nevertheless made the attempt because of the apparent lack of a comprehensive application of research to the public schools by psychologists themselves, especially in the field of holistic-dynamic psychology, but also in the field of genetic psychology, although educators are increasingly aware of the importance of the latter.

Woodring stated in 1964 that new educational programs were being pushed by practical educators who needed to meet the challenges facing the schools and could not wait for psychologists to complete their research and come to agreement on theory. ("Reform Movements from the Point of View of Psychological Theory", NSSE 63rd yearbook Theories of Learning and Instruction, 1964 , p. 290) These new programs, Woodring went on to state, were "being pushed with imagination, flair, and enthusiasm but without a great deal of psychological sophistication." He concluded that the current situation was regrettable because "all our people spend from 10 to 16 years in school and college, while a much smaller number are reached directly by psychologists working in other applied fields, and because learning, broadly defined, is the central problem in both psychology and education. If psychologists--the most able psychologists--neglect the field of education they will have missed their greatest opportunity." (Woodring, 1964, p. 303) Among the most able psychologists, Piaget, Maslow, and Rogers have indeed addressed themselves courageously, imaginatively and provocatively

to the subject of education, and the writer's task has consisted chiefly in seeing whether a well-constructed social studies method bears out their theories, at least in some measure.

## Timeliness of the Study

An investigation such as this one seems timely in light of the recent adoption of the Social Sciences Education Framework for California Public Schools: Kindergarten and Grades One through Twelve (Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1975). The framers of the California Study intended "that the focus of curriculum development would be at the local level, and that the generalizations would have to be evaluated and modified by their applicability to local curriculum needs." (Smith and Cox, 1969, p. 48) This implies a requirement from Ventura County, and, indeed, all California counties, for local research, discussion and consensus on a broad basis, as well as local expertise in interpretation and implementation of the Framework for the Social Sciences.

## Requisites of a Good Social Studies Program

The following requisites of a good social studies program were distilled from the writings of major social studies authorities in the teacher training field, including Jarolimek, Kenworthy, Michaelis, Ragan and McAulay, and John R. Lee, all of whose works are listed in the selected bibliography accompanying this work. A good social studies program should (1) demonstrate current learning theory; (2) be related to student interest; (3) provide an environment encouraging

spontaneity, creativity, and flexibility of operations; (4) have a system of evaluation of method, content, and student and teacher performance; (5) provide for consideration of persistent social problems; (6) be adaptable to the developing content of the social studies; (7) provide for traditional social studies skills; and (8) be suited to the teacher's teaching style.

## Kinds of Research on the Teaching of Social Studies

The aforementioned writers include four kinds of research in their conclusions of "what ought to be" good social studies teaching methods. In addition to the historical and descriptive research literature, there is a small amount of action research, or classroom observation of "what is", examples of which are listed in the Teacher Resource References, Appendix D of this paper. Pure, controlled experimental classroom research is difficult to conduct in social studies classrooms. Innovation seems most often to occur through wholesale adoption of university-originated programs by state, regional, or district systems. The facilities of the Social Science Education Consortium, Inc. (SSEC) and the Clearinghouse for Social Studies/ Social Science Education (ERIC/ChESS) provide analysis and evaluation of curriculum and materials from the programs evolved from the nationally funded social studies projects of the 1960's, in their Annual Data Book, which is available to teachers and administrators at moderate cost. SSEC also provides a Resource and Demonstration Center at Boulder, Colorado, which offers a

Visitor Workshop Program, consisting mostly of consultation on methods of implementing curriculum change, training in the use of innovative materials, and assistance in conducting an ERIC search, including computer search on a given topic.

The following chapters include a historical view of social studies curriculum development, a theoretical discussion of some cognitive and affective psychologies, and an illustration of these theories in a classroom experience.

# CHAPTER I

# HISTORY OF SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN U.S. SINCE 1900; RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

## The Social Sciences and Education

It can be argued that one of the single most important developments in the history of social studies curriculum development in the last fifty years is the joining of the social science disciplines in partnership with the education profession to construct a separate discipline in the K-12 curriculum. The change is most evident in the increasing use in the classroom of the method of scientific inquiry and conceptualization as applied in the content fields of cultural anthropology, political science, economics, human geography, sociology, social psychology and history.

## Federal Participation in Research

The instruments of this partnership, particularly in the 1960's, were the federal government, university research staffs, professional organizations of educators, professional organizations of social scientists, textbook publishers, and the school systems themselves. The chief federal effort in the 1960's was Project Social Studies of the Division of Educational Research of the United States Office of Education, which founded a number of study centers at various universities,

including Syracuse, Michigan, Wisconsin, Amherst, Harvard, and others, aimed at identifying concepts and generalizations in the social sciences, developing and testing materials for use in elementary and secondary schools, and acquainting teachers with these programs through demonstration workshops and conferences. Other federal funding was made available in the 1960's through Title III of ESEA, which sponsored sixty-six projects emphasizing use of multi-media and activity-oriented instruction procedures to replace assign-recite-test, single-text methods, or else a combination with more flexible use of teacher and student time through modular scheduling and various forms of large group/small group independent study. Results of these studies and of more recent social studies programs and curriculum developments are available through evaluation and dissemination agencies such as the Curriculum Materials Analysis System (CMAS) developed by SSEC and fully described by Irving Morrissett, W. W. Stevens, Jr. and Celeste P. Woodley in NCSS, 1969, pp. 229-276.

Other curriculum evaluation agencies include the Curriculum Information Network (CIN) jointly sponsored by NCSS and SSEC; Project ALERT; CeDAR Catalogue; Curriculum Advisory Service (CAS), and other agencies summarized in Appendix D of this work. The writer has found that most of this resource material is available only at UCLA or other institutions outside of Ventura County, as of this writing.

## Professional Organizations

The chief professional organizations of educators in the

field of social studies appear to be the NCSS with its official journal Social Education, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), and the National Society for the Study of Education (NSSE). All three organizations publish yearbooks dealing with a single aspect, or a survey of developments, in education, the first organization confining itself to social studies issues. NCSS is an affiliate of the National Education Association.

Examples of professional organizations of social scientists are the National Council for Geographic Education, the Association of American Geographers, the American Historical Association, the American Anthropological Association, the American Sociological Association, and the American Political Science Association, among many others. Funding for many projects has come through the Joint Council on Economic Education and the National Science Foundation, which appear to be quasi-federal organizations.

## Present Social Context

All of these agencies have been operating in a social milieu of culture crisis characterized by change, instability, and disjunction. The problems of racial conflict, crime and delinquency, family disorganization, and world social problems are cited by Massalias and Cox as pressing for solution in society and in the schools. (Byron G. Massalias and C. Benjamin Cox, Inquiry in Social Studies [New York:McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1966], p. 5) The question arises whether these teacher resources for curriculum and materials analysis have sufficiently taken

into account the social context within which the public schools operate. It is true that some awareness of the cultural crisis is indicated by the present stress in social studies curriculum on multi-cultural education.

It is noteworthy that the authors of the survey of CMAS found that, of the four elements of the educational process--student, teacher, materials, and situation--, the most neglected was the situation. (Morrissett, Stevens, Woodley, NCSS, 1969, p. 273) The "situation" in this case was defined as "all inputs not denoted by student, teacher, and materials." It includes the classroom, "hardware, building, principal, parents, community groups, etc." (Morrissett et al., NCSS, 1969, p. 240) It is also noteworthy that these last two situational elements of the educational process are receiving increasing attention in the pages of Social Education, the official journal of the NCSS, indicating that the schools and the community together have begun to question and clarify the goals, objectives, and norms of public education; and the objects of scrutiny appear very often to be precisely the content area of the social studies.

## Current Trends in the Social Studies

The following summary of current trends in social studies curriculum development was taken from an article by Frazer in the 1969 NCSS Yearbook Social Studies Curriculum Development: Prospects and Problems, a collection of articles which has been invaluable to the writer in correlating the integrated activities method which is the illustrative model of

this thesis with the actual prospects and problems of social studies teachers of the 1970's. Frazer notes five broad educational or social preoccupations which will continue to influence priorities in social studies curriculum development in the 1970's: (1) values considerations in such areas as international relations, affluence and poverty, human rights, and domestic government; (2) changing ideas about readiness for social studies learning; (3) changing ideas about differences in learning styles; (4) the influence on content, scope and sequence in social studies curriculum of the "concept-inquiry" approach; and (5) the knowledge revolution in the social sciences themselves.

Based on these major preoccupations of the late sixties, Frazer lists certain observable changes in social studies curriculum development, six of which are substantive, concerned with content, and three of which are organizational. The six areas of change in content listed by Frazer are:

1. Orientation of content is functional, or conceptual, rather than merely historical, tapping the range of the social science disciplines. For example, comparative studies of family and community are a means of introducing ideas of cultural change, of variations in ways of meeting basic needs from one culture to another, and of observing the effect of culture on individual personality, role, role expectations, and conflicts among roles.
2. New content emphasizes economics, due to acceleration of research by the Joint Council on Economic Education.
3. In secondary social studies, the emphasis shifts to ideas

of authority, conflict resolution and justice under the law, as a result of the influence of political science researchers.

4. In geography, concepts and skills are introduced earlier, and integrated with man's interaction with his environment.
5. Content increasingly stresses the world view, including non-Western studies, rather than confining studies to the history of the United States and Western Europe.
6. Process is now treated as content, most significantly in the geographer's skill in map use to correlate data, sampling techniques, and survey procedures. (Frazer, NCSS, 1969, pp. 24-26)

Changes in program organization of social studies show structure organized around concepts and generalizations for sequential or spiraling patterns of learning; cumulative development of skills, including rational inquiry and concept formation; and experimentation with internal organization of units and courses, using an interdisciplinary approach in the elementary levels, and structuring secondary classes for the most part into separate social science disciplines. (Frazer, NCSS, 1969, pp. 22-24)

## Citizenship Training

Perhaps one of the most dramatic developments resulting from the partnership of the social sciences and the field of education is in the area of citizenship training. Smith and Cox in 1969 called for integration of the findings of the social and behavioral sciences into the social studies curriculum, especially with respect to its teaching of citizenship. (Smith and Cox, 1969, p. 15) Their specific recommendation

for a change in citizenship instruction is a "systematic analysis and adjudication of value problems", with emphasis upon social rather than personal problems, although conceding the relevance of the latter in the areas of personal adjustment and character development. (Smith and Cox, 1969, p. 80) A survey of educational literature published since that date indicates concentration of effort in the areas of scientific inquiry methods, values clarification, the art of questioning, and some social normative questioning. Brady in 1966 proposed such a systematic analysis for secondary social studies, using a model in which dominant social values are studied in juxtaposition to and/or in conflict with, socio-cultural drifts; while both are studied in light of historical and geographic factors influencing values and drifts. (Marion Brady, "A New Social Studies", Phi Delta Kappan 48 (1966):68-71) It is as if the teacher is asking the student to stand outside his normative structure and to view it objectively as a social scientist. The collisions imminent in such a questioning of parental, religious, and traditional social attitudinal structures are explored in the April 1975 issue of Social Education 39, a special issue of the NCSS publication devoted to the problem of academic freedom. The writers of the articles cite a lack of public understanding of the goals and expectations of professional educators using an increasingly sophisticated methodology in the conduct of the free contest of ideas.

With further regard to the citizenship component of social studies, which is concerned primarily with the interrelationship of personal and social goals, the writer feels

that the social studies authority most nearly defining this crucial interrelationship from the standpoint of holistic pedagogy is Charles A. Beard, who in 1934 stated: "All instruction in the classroom must turn on the individual pupil; its results must inhere in the individual; even though some idealized scheme of social arrangements may be the controlling motive in the organization and imparting of learning." (Charles A. Beard, cited by Roy A. Price, "Goals for the Social Studies" Social Studies Curriculum Development, 1969, pp. 38-39)

The writer feels that the many government-sponsored research and development programs now incorporated into existing social studies curricula--for example, in the Marin and Contra Costa County programs in California--have helped to clarify the issues surrounding the dialogue between society and the schools which is taking place in the 1970's.

## Social Sciences Education Framework For California Public Schools

A graphic illustration of the difficulties of translating the ideas of social scientists for use in the public school system is the California Study of the 1960's, which has borne fruit in the recently adopted Social Sciences Education Framework for California Public Schools: Kindergarten and Grades One through Twelve. The California Study had its philosophical roots in Bruner's seminal work, The Process of Education (Cambridge, Mass: Harvard Univ. Press, 1960), which seeks structure in the various social science disciplines, and attempts to apply this knowledge of the structure of the disciplines to the process of education. Smith and Cox cite two major sources

as the basis of the California Study. (Smith and Cox, 1969, pp. 46-47) These authorities are: Raymond R. Muessig and Vincent R. Rogers, Social Science Seminar Series (Columbus, Ohio: The Charles E. Merrill Co., 1965) and John U. Michaelis and A. M. Johnston, The Social Sciences: Foundation of the Social Studies (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1965). These authorities expanded the search for structure in the social science disciplines, and their studies were the basis for the California Study. Social scientists were asked by the framers to examine their respective disciplines from the perspective of contributing to the education of citizens for the modern world. A set of generalizations was developed for each discipline, from which eighteen syntheses were formulated. The commission responsible for the report of the California Study intended that the generalizations and syntheses would serve as a general framework for curriculum development at the local level. "There was no claim that the report had identified the structure of either the social sciences or the social studies curriculum." (Smith and Cox, 1969, p. 48). For California teachers the analyses of Becker (NCSS, 1969, pp. 82-86) and Smith and Cox (Smith and Cox, 1969, pp. 40-49) will be useful in discovering the intent of the framers of the California Study. This new Social Sciences Education Framework may be characterized as an inquiry-conceptual approach to the studies of man. An example of a sequential curriculum for teaching the art of inquiry and conceptualization is the so-called "Taba Curriculum" listed in Appendix D.

## Conflicting Points of View Among Professionals

In addition to problems of integration of content and method of the social sciences into the school system, there exist conflicting philosophies between social scientists themselves, notably between the behavioristic and Freudian psychologists and the organismic, or holistic-dynamic, psychologists. Woodring, as noted in the Introduction, claimed in 1964 that the neglect of public education by the psychologists themselves was one cause for the absence of a sound psychological basis for much educational reform. (Woodring, 1964, pp. 302-3) Thoreson in 1973 cited the lack of scientific method in the humanistic psychologies. (Carl E. Thoreson, "Behavioral Humanism", Behavioral Modification in Education, 72nd yearbook, NSSE, p. 387) Nevertheless, Krimerman in 1972 had drawn up criteria for "identifying cases of autonomous belief and autonomous desire"--an issue of the essence of both genetic and holistic-dynamic psychology, as discussed in Chapters II, III and IV. Krimerman's article reflects a rising awareness of the need for fundamental changes in basic concepts regarding human nature, science, psychology, and education research.

Price caps the issues raised here by citing the ability to anticipate and adapt to change as the quality most needed by tomorrow's adults. (Roy.A. Price, "Goals for the Social Studies", Social Studies Curriculum Development, 1969, pp. 33-34) Other arguments favoring change in the educational establishment are those of Gibson regarding the lack of connection between research and development in the social studies in-service and teacher

training programs in colleges and universities. (John S. Gibson, "The Social Studies Teacher and Curriculum Change", Social Studies Curriculum Development, 1969, pp. 312-13) Sanders, in the same year, presented suggestions for meaningful teaching strategy research which begins with specific subject matter ideas, testing them with various teaching strategies, and applying them to different grade levels with proper controls. (Norris Sanders, "Changing Strategies of Instruction", Social Studies Curriculum Development, 1969, pp. 171-2) The problems inherent in collaboration between scientists and educators is understandable if one perceives the dedication to scientific objectivity of the former, and the dedication to transmission of cultural values on the part of the latter.

## NAEP and Evaluation of Social Studies Curriculum

As a prod to self-evaluation of objectives, method, and content of the social studies and of all other subject matters by the education profession itself, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), a project of the Education Commission of the States, located in Denver, has produced its first evaluation of the social studies and the first two five-year evaluations of citizenship education.

The official journal of NCSS, Social Education, in May, 1974, was dedicated to reports on NAEP. According to one author, the intent of the NAEP is "to push the school and the community into a hard look at what performance they consider adequate for their students", by means of examination of content and method through specific exercises structured by the NAEP for class-

room evaluation. This author concludes that the likely result would be that the school and the community would find their rationale reflected in their school program, and that therefore the school would be better able to meet the expectation of all publics. (June Chapin, Social Education 38 (May 1974), p. 414) Another author in this issue states that NAEP is aware of possible misinterpretation of their evaluation by school districts as a national standardized testing procedure. (Jean Fair, p. 402) The NAEP Social Studies Objectives and the Citizenship Objectives listed on pp. 409-411 of this issue of Social Education may be compared with the NCSS Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines and the goals and objectives of the Social Sciences Education Framework for California Public Schools as listed in Appendix D, for purposes of comparing them with the cognitive and affective educational criteria delineated in this paper.

## Present Prospects for Holism in Social Studies Curriculum Development

In light of the historical situation here presented, the question arises as to the prospects for holistic social studies curricula. Herman, an authority on elementary social studies research, stated in 1969 that "as a subject, the social studies more than any other subject is appropriate for meeting the various whole child needs of children." Herman goes on to state that the solution to the lack of suitable curricula is for principals to understand and encourage teachers to allow expression of whole-child needs in learning situations. (Herman, 1969, p. 219)

In reviewing the relationship between the writer's suggested holistic method and the objectives of the Social Sciences Education Framework, the writer feels that this method is well suited for providing a setting for working out the general objectives of the Framework. That is to say, the sequential integrated activities approach to social studies provides "intellectual, work-study, affective, and social participation skills" as recommended on p. 52 of the Framework under the heading "Guidelines for Selecting Settings".

## Interface between Cognitive and Affective Psychologies and the Historical Origins of the Illustrative Model

The writer is of the opinion that this model, which she has often referred to as the "living history" method of teaching social studies, reflects the Deweyan experiential approach to education. Further, Piaget has added to the Deweyan philosophy the data of genetic epistemology as to the modus operandi of intelligence: i.e., the spontaneous formation and elaboration of cognitive structures and their sequential and hierarchical development through stages as determined by both maturation and environment. American educational researchers are now absorbing the Piagetian hypotheses and are beginning to create those curricula which conform to the contours of the developing intelligence. The British primary schools are examples of serious application of the Piagetian hypotheses, as described in the refreshing lay language of the Plowden Report. ("Children and their Primary Schools: ("The Plowden Report")", Open Education: A Sourcebook for Parents and Teachers, Ewald B.

Nyquist and Gene R. Hawes, eds. [New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1972], pp. 23-45)

Piaget sees the central problem of the active school as that of the invention of methods, the creation of practices, which might conform to the hypotheses of genetic, or developmental, psychology. (Piaget, 1973a, pp. 15-17) Although he does not endorse the use of ready-made materials as used in Montessori schools (Evans, 1973, p. 52), Piaget does give credit to Montessori for the discovery of the causal relationship of activity to intelligence, and to Dewey who influenced her. (Piaget, 1970, pp. 147-8)

It appears that the model here discussed may be evidence of a direct connection between the Deweyan influence on American teachers, including those who developed this model in the 1940's, 1950's, and 1960's, and the model's intuitive conformity to the Piagetian findings, which in turn are direct descendants of Deweyan psychological and educational philosophy, and also of European influences in genetic epistemological research.

A further connection was discovered between Maslow's philosophy of psychology as set forth in his definitive work, Motivation and Personality, and the philosophy of William James and the functionalist tradition of James and Dewey. (Maslow, 1970, p. 35) In short, philosophical connections exist between Dewey and both the cognitive and affective psychologies selected for examination in this paper. Several points of coincidence between these schools will be revealed throughout this paper.

It is also noteworthy that both Piaget and Maslow

were influenced by Henri Bergson's Creative Evolution (New York: Modern Library, 1944). Piaget was searching for the origins of human intelligence by studying the thought processes of young children, and was disturbed by Bergson's anti-intellectualism. (Evans, 1973, p. 113) Maslow recognized Bergson's error and reconciled the seeming dichotomy between "fresh, Bergsonian reality" and the tendency of the intellect to freeze reality into rubricized forms of cognition. (Maslow, 1970, p. 218) This philosophical problem--the relationship between action, or experience, and thought formation--runs like a thread through the deliberations of this paper.

# CHAPTER II

# TRENDS TOWARD A GENERAL PSYCHOLOGY OF COGNITION AND AFFECT

## Introduction

With the developing psychologies of the twentieth century, teachers have at their disposal new tools for the task of teaching the young. However, these psychologies have yet to be synthesized into a general psychology of cognition and affect upon which a psychologically sound teaching practice can be constructed. Piaget recommends "the foundation of a general psychology based simultaneously on the mechanisms discovered by psychoanalysis and on the cognitive operations." (Piaget, 1973b, pp. 47-48) In this passage Piaget claims that these mechanisms always remain indissociable although distinct. In the absence of such a general psychology, the writer has attempted to distil what she considers to be the essential elements of certain psychologies concerned primarily with development of either the intellect or the personality.

Both the cognitive and affective psychologies discussed in Chapters III and IV can be considered as ends of the same tunnel, by which entrance is gained to an understanding of the psychologically healthy human being. A close examination of these two sets of psychologies reveals no dichotomy between them.

For example, Piaget finds the child's need and interest to be central to the development of intelligence, thereby acknowledging the affective element of cognitive processes. Conversely, Maslow, Rogers, and Combs, who might be termed "affective" psychologists, refer as often to efficient cognition as a component of the healthy personality as they do to the purely felt or sensed element which is a part of each act.

With regard to the aspect of social studies dealing with socialization, or citizenship, both Piaget and Maslow observe throughout their works that efficient thought processes are co-emergent with de-centering of the ego and greater awareness of and empathy for one's fellows. In this dual process the personal and social goals are united, and in this process the two major goals of education might be achieved--i.e., some form of both self-development and enculturation.

## Definition of Holism

The writer uses the term "holistic" in two closely allied senses: (1) as the term is used by Maslow in his description of holistic-dynamic psychology; and (2) as it might be used in educational psychology to denote the encouragement of the integrated functioning of cognition and affect in an academic context. The writer would describe as holistic any teaching method or curriculum which develops both the personality and the intellect.

## Evidence in Support of a General Psychology

The following discussion includes quotations from several sources which were of value to the writer in clarifying

the concept, if not the specifics, of a general psychology of cognition and affect. These selections furnish an indication of trends in recent scientific research in the biosciences and also in the development of a more positive philosophy of human nature based on findings in twentieth-century psychological research, psychoanalysis and psychotherapy.

### Piaget: The Epistemological Approach

In his work, To Understand Is to Invent: The Future of Education, Piaget cites evidence in genetic psychology, mathematics, and biology, for the intrinsic unity of the human and the non-human, or so-called natural sciences:

> From the theoretical point of view, psychology, considered a science of man, is connected without a break to biology and animal psychology or zoological ethology, whereas mathematics, classed among the natural sciences, is one of the most direct products of the human brain.
>
> (Piaget, 1973a, p. 31)

The discovery of these relations between the human and natural sciences has led Piaget to call for a scientific structuralism which incorporates the structures to be found in mathematics, physics, biology and the mind itself, and requires an "interdisciplinary vision", or "spirit of epistemology". (Piaget, 1973a, pp. 23-30)

### Ornstein and Henderson on Lateral Specialization Of the Brain

The discovery by Hughlings Jackson in 1864 of the lateral specialization of the brain has led to recent experimentation by Bogen, et al. into the rational, linear functioning of the left brain hemisphere and the intuitive, simultaneous

functioning of the right brain hemisphere. These discoveries are discussed by Robert Ornstein in The Psychology of Consciousness (New York: Viking Press, 1972), with relevance to a change in value emphasis within the sciences. Ornstein states that because of threats to the human species of over-population, pollution, and nuclear war, the collective and cooperative values typifying right-brain activity are now more survival oriented than the individualistic, competitive separateness of human beings that characterized early man's survival values. (Ornstein, 1972, p. 139) He discusses the use of the paradigm, or operational model, in the sciences, and the need for a redefinition--a new paradigm-- to succeed Watsonian behaviorism, which will take into account the two complementary modes of brain function. (Ornstein, 1972, pp. 3-8)

On the basis of Ornstein's book, Hazel Henderson, Co-Director of the Institute for Alternative Futures at Princeton University, enlarges upon the valuing aspect of the right brain function, in an article entitled "Systems, Economics and Female" (Sausalito, CA: CoEvolution Quarterly, Fall 1975), pp. 61-63. The valuing process, according to Henderson, is driven into hiding in our culture by the so-called "value-free" methodologies of present-day science. Further, she states that "we reward analysis and punish synthesis, while the interesting problems exist at the interface between the disciplines." (Henderson, 1975, p. 61) This would bear out Piaget's plea for an interdisciplinary or epistemological spirit in research, teacher training, and higher curricula.

## Pribram: A New Curricular Paradigm

Karl H. Pribram, a neuropsychologist, summarized the knowledge regarding nervous system functioning in relation to the learning process as of 1964, the date of his article in the 63rd yearbook of the NSSE, pp. 78-110. The limits of research at that time had arrived at the discovery of the self-biasing, or self-regulating, mechanism of the nervous system, which is a process of homeostasis like that of thermostatic operation in mechanics. According to Pribram, a disciple of John Dewey, the external stimulation of the biasing or valuing mechanism requires a matching of biological structure with the structure of materials studied:

> . . . The reinforcing process, basic to education, has an intrinsic organic, i.e., neurological, structure which respects the intrinsic structure of the materials to be taught. The job of education is to facilitate the matching of these two intrinsic structures, much as a sculptor matches his intrinsic vision to the intrinsic properties of stone. In this endeavor lies the art of educating.
>
> (Pribram, NSSE, 1964, p. 79)

There is a direct connection between Pribram's neuropsychological research and Piaget's research into the partial isomorphisms between biology and intellectual development, as summarized in Piaget's Biology and Knowledge, 1971.

The writer sees a direct connection also between Pribram and Maslow, as seen in Maslow's reference to the basic needs and the higher needs as "intrinsic reinforcers, the unconditioned stimuli which can be used as a basis upon which can be erected all sorts of instrumental learnings and conditionings." (Maslow, 1970, pref. xiii) These three sources have led

the writer to posit sound curriculum development on the matching process suggested by Pribram: the matching of the intrinsic neurological and personality structure with the intrinsic structure of the materials to be taught. Chapters III and IV discuss the central theories of selected cognitive and affective psychologies. Chapters V through VII describe what the writer believes is a good illustrative model of these theories. The model is termed "holistic" because of its encompassing of the cognitive and affective functioning in a classroom program of thought arising from activity, and personality arising from mutual obligation between peers rather than heteronomous obligation of child to teacher.

The Spontaneity of the "Tao"

In his book The Way of Zen (New York: Vintage Books, 1965), Alan Watts notes a parallelism between Asian philosophy and Western science "in psychology and psychotherapy, in logic and the philosophy of science, in semantics and communications theory." (Watts, 1965, pref. ix) As the writer understands it, the core of the Taoistic view of the universe is spontaneous functioning. "The center of the mind's activity is not in the conscious thinking process, not in the ego" (Watts, 1965, p. 25), but rather in "man's spontaneous and natural functioning--a power which is blocked when one tries to master it in terms of formal methods and techniques." (Watts, 1965, p. 27) This interpretation of the cognitive function accords with Rogers" description of the fully functioning person in Freedom to Learn,

as "using all of the data his nervous system can . . . supply, using it in awareness, but recognizing that his total organism may be, and often is, wiser than his awareness." (Rogers, 1969, p. 288) Further, Maslow argues that education must develop both spontaneity and control. "In our culture and at this point in history, it is necessary to redress the balance in favor of spontaneity, the ability to be expressive, passive, unwilled, trusting in processes other than will and control, unpremeditated, creative, etc. But it must be recognized that there have been and will be other cultures and other eras in which the balance was or will be in the other direction." (ASCD, 1962, p. 38)

## Holism Not a Dogma

Although the writer has emphasized the dynamic and holistic aspects of reality, including intellectual and personality development, in an attempt to compensate for the more static and atomistic traditional pedagogies, the holistic approach is not presented as an exclusive one; a change of emphasis is intended, rather than a global explanation for every kind of good classroom practice. (Cf. Maslow, 1970, p. 204.) As Smith and Cox have observed, teachers are probably eclectic in their use of learning theories to fit classroom tasks. (Smith and Cox, 1969, p. 25) A further caveat concerns the highly arbitrary attempt to assign "specific classroom behaviors to particular

psychologies". (Smith and Cox, 1969, p. 39) They themselves have sought to relate only the apparent implications of theories to existing classroom practices, in the same way this writer has attempted to do with a single classroom example.

The writer's most important objective has been to experience a prolonged examination of theory and practice as an exercise in "critical mindedness" regarding the degree of congruence of her professional and personal objectives, as recommended by Smith and Cox, p. 39. This critical mindedness is emphasized also by Gibson, who views the teacher as decision maker as well as implementor of decisions. Teachers, according to Gibson, need to be included, and to include themselves, in curriculum innovation and integration. (Gibson in NCSS, 1969, pp. 315-16)

## The Writer's Paradigm of Educational Research

The writer favors a dual approach to educational research. This would mean improving classroom experience through simultaneously approaching the subject theoretically and practically. Specifically, educators would benefit by examining collected examples of successful teaching for overlaps, contrasts, and novel concepts arising from their juxtaposition. This might be called a phenomenological approach. (Cf. Wilson Van Dusen in Person to Person: The Problem of Being Human, Carl R. Rogers, Barry Stevens, et al., [New York: Pocket Books, 1971], p. 215.) The theoretical approach, on

the other hand, would, in the writer's view, consist of collection and examination of theoretical definitions of good education by teachers, administrators, parents, and community groups, social scientists, and interested others. These phenomenological descriptions and ideal definitions can then be superimposed upon one another for the purpose of locating points of coincidence and variance, with a view to formulating and testing new hypotheses for a true science of education, which Piaget believes is necessary. In both a phenomenological and a theoretical approach to psychopedagogical theory, it must be emphasized that the teacher is, or should be, a major partner.

The writer feels, with Henderson and Piaget, that the interesting problems begin at the interfaces between the disciplines. The California Social Sciences Education Framework indicates a movement toward an increasingly interdisciplinary approach to social studies curriculum. Other disciplinary interfaces of relevance to public education include not only the social sciences, psychology among them, but also the hitherto compartmentalized academic disciplines at all grade levels, the developing psychobiological sciences, teacher training, and the theory and practice of public school administration as it relates to the issues of teacher and community participation therein.

In conclusion, the writer believes that a general psychology of cognition and affect is not only desirable and possible, but also necessary for good classroom practice, and therefore she offers these pages as an example of her paradigm of educational research. The exercize has consisted of offering one

theory--that of a holistic approach to the social studies--derived from her own classroom experience of an intuitively developed teaching method which she found eminently successful in terms of measurable growth in personhood in both teacher and students. (Cf. Harold B. Dunkill, "Wanted: New Paradigms and a Normative Basis for Research", Philosophical Redirection of Educational Research [NSSE, 1973], pp. 77-93.)

# CHAPTER III

# THE "COGNITIVE" PSYCHOLOGY OF PIAGET: HYPOTHESES OF GENETIC PSYCHOLOGY IN RELATION TO EDUCATION

## Introduction

Jean Piaget, a formidable scholar and researcher, approaches his subject without preconceptions, his subject being the child, the phenotype of the species whose source of intelligence he seeks. (Evans, 1973, pp. 35-36) Piaget combines his empirical approach to research with his mastery of several basic sciences, including mathematics, biology, and psychology, and also integrates the work of others in widely varying fields into the formulation of his own hypotheses.

The following are the works by or about Piaget which form the basis for the hypotheses of this chapter: Piaget, The Science of Education and the Psychology of the Child (Piaget, 1970); Piaget, Biology and Knowledge: An Essay on the Relations Between Organic Regulations and Cognitive Processes (Piaget, 1971); Piaget, "Advances in Child and Adolescent Psychology" in Open Education (Piaget, 1972); Piaget, To Understand is To Invent: The Future of Education (Piaget, 1973a); Piaget, The Child and Reality: Problems in Genetic Psychology (Piaget, 1973b); and Richard I. Evans, Piaget: The Man and His Ideas (Evans, 1973). The bibliography gives publication data. Acknowledgment is properly due to the work of Piaget's colleagues, including that

of Barbel Inhelder and other researchers at the International Center for Genetic Epistemology at the University of Geneva, the work of Mme. Sinclair of Canada in linguistics, and others who are developing the science of genetic epistemology, i.e., the study of the origins and development of human intelligence.

In tracing the history of modern genetic psychology as it relates to education, Piaget credits Dewey in America, Montessori in Italy, and Decroly in Brussels, with the concepts of work based on interest, and of activity providing training for thought. (Piaget, Science of Education, pp. 147-8) Piaget's own lifetime research into the origins of knowledge confirm the primacy of action over language in the development of cognitive structures in the child.

## Organization of the Chapter

A summary statement of Piaget's definition of intellectual growth is first presented, and then amplified by twelve criteria for a hypothetical teaching model drawn from the previously cited works of Piaget. The first six criteria incorporate the writer's interpretation of the central features of Piaget's theory of intellectual development. The twelve criteria are presented as applying generally to curricula and teaching methods; however, the first six are discussed in detail as having crucial relevance to the illustrative model of this paper.

## Piaget's Definition of Intellectual Growth

The following summarization of Piaget's definition of intellectual growth appears in the aforementioned work by Evans:

> Intellectual growth has been broadly defined by Piaget in terms of a biological adaptation model. Intelligence is viewed as an open system which extends into the environment to obtain knowledge, but which also tends to close in terms of mental structure to encompass already extant organizational features. It is thus an evolutionary advance that oscillates between opening (transforming existing structures in response to the environment) and closing (incorporating attributes of the environment into existing structures), so that a homeostatic balance is achieved (Nash, 1970). Piaget has termed this balance equilibration. It is through the complementary processes of assimilation and accommodation that this state of equilibrium is achieved. Assimilation involves the incorporation of new events into pre-existing cognitive structures. Accommodation involves the transformation of an already existing structure in response to the environment. Intellectual growth is thus seen as the resolution of tension between assimilation and accommodation. It is an active, organized process of assimilating the new to the old and accommodating the old to the new (Flavell, 1963).
>
> (Evans, 1973, pp. 78-79)

The implication here is that teachers and researchers need to pay more attention to the spontaneous structuring of the child's cognitive processes and to the manner in which he changes reality in the process of both assimilating it and accommodating to it. To this end twelve criteria have been formulated as examples of guides for the teacher in the construction of teaching methods which are psychologically sound in the genetic sense.

## Twelve Cognitive Criteria for a Hypothetical Teaching Model

The following pedagogical criteria represent an interpretation of Piaget's most recent works couched in terms useful for evaluation of the teaching model discussed in Chapters V through VII. The first six criteria the writer considers

fundamental to Piaget's genetic psychology, and the remainder are presented as a further indication of the general direction of Piaget's educational philosophy and psychology. Only the first six criteria will be analyzed in detail in this chapter.

1. To what extent does the hypothetical teaching model conform to the developmental stages of the child's intelligence?
2. To what extent is the model based on personal need and interest?
3. To what extent does the model encourage operativity--Piaget's term for activity--rather than language, as the basis of the development of intelligence?
4. To what extent does the model encourage autonomy?
5. To what extent does the model encourage reciprocity?
6. To what extent does the model encourage the development of personality, or personhood, in the Piagetian sense?
7. To what extent does the model encourage observation and experimentation?
8. To what extent does the model encourage novelty, invention, creativity, spontaneity?
9. To what extent does the model allow input on early childhood experience as an influence on intellectual development?
10. To what extent does the model present culture as panhuman, or international, by its increasing extentionality of curriculum?
11. To what extent does the model encourage interdisciplinary and cross-disciplinary curricula?
12. To what extent does the model introduce young children to

the relativity of viewpoints and to causality by interaction as opposed to simple temporal series?

Cognitive Criterion 1: Stage Development

The following comments, derived from Piaget's premises and from observations by authorities in the field of social studies instruction, apply to children of fourth-grade level (age nine to eleven), fourth grade being the level used as an illustration in Chapters V through VII.

Beginning fourth grade children are still in the developmental stage of concrete operations (Evans, 1973, pref. xxxix), and by the end of the school year the older children, aged ten or eleven, will be on the threshold of the stage of formal operations, also termed by Piaget the stage of logico-mathematical operations. These stages are not fixed and predictable but characterized by a certain potentiality, depending upon the child and the environment. Also, the stages overlap--that is, growth is uneven with respect to capacities within the individual. (Piaget, 1970, p. 171)

Beginning fourth-grade children still have a sensorimotor, or practical, intelligence rather than a reflexive, or gnostic, intelligence. The child of this age has a coherent universe on the level of action, and can predict phenomena long before he can explain them. This is the reverse of the adult situation, where prediction is based on abstract generalization. (Piaget, 1970, p. 162)

The child in the stage of concrete operations assimilates reality into the self by means of "syncretic fusion or aggregation", rather than by logical generalization, to use

Decroly's terminology. (Piaget, 1970, p. 166)

"Before the age of ten or eleven the child is hardly capable of any kind of formal reasoning; which is to say, of deductions based upon merely assumed data and not on observed facts." (Piaget, 1970, p. 163) This child has yet to understand formal principles, structure of classes or concepts, and structure of relations.

The fourth grade child is just beginning to construct scientific notions of causality. He is intermediate between the animism of the very young and the mechanism of the later stages, although tending toward the latter as he enters adolescence. (Piaget, 1970, p. 170)

The child's language, discussion and conceptualization are correspondingly limited, and require different rules for presentation of subject matter. (Piaget, 1970, p. 166)

The child's socialization at this age is characterized by emergence from egocentricity and an absolute point of view, which were necessarily based on the absence of true reciprocity, a feature of the stage of formal operations. The child therefore becomes aware of his own personality and that of everyone else simultaneously as he comes to "subject his will and his thought to rules whose coherence is sufficient to make such an arduous objectivity possible." (Piaget, 1970, p. 175)

The following descriptions of this age group can be compared with the Piagetian hypotheses regarding intellectual development in the stage of concrete operations. They are drawn from the works of three authorities in the field of

social studies teaching: John U. Michaelis, Social Studies for Children in a Democracy, 4th ed. (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968), pp. 63-67; John Jarolimek, Social Studies in Elementary Education (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1963), p. 408; and William B. Ragan and John D. McAulay, Social Studies for Today's Children (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1964), pp. 28-39.

The fourth-grade child, according to these authorities, is physically active, restless, boisterous; seeking independence from adults; developing emotionally; self- and other-critical; preoccupied with justice and fair play, especially in the second term; eager to attain skills, more discriminating in tasks; developing relativity in time, size, and space concepts; increasing in attention span; exploring and experimenting; collecting things; worshiping heroes; avoiding cross-sex friendships, etc.

Having used the concrete operational stage as an example of the process of stage development of intelligence, it remains to analyze the workings of the cognitive mechanisms themselves. David Elkind summarizes the Piagetian theory of the growth of intelligence somewhat as follows: the intelligence is hierarchically structured--that is, the process proceeds through integration and substitution and not solely by the addition of new facts. This kind of growth by integration improves in an expanding upward spiral characterized by a more mature, differentiated and elaborate conceptualization.(Evans, 1973, pref. xxvii)

Intelligence itself is a process of integration of schemes or plans of action termed by Piaget "cognitive structures". These cognitive structures are not merely stored randomly in memory, but are integrated unconsciously by the child into "cognitive structures of the whole". (Evans, 1973, p. 141) Piaget states that "one can abstract from the coordinations of a given level and build a higher level system from these abstractions, but it is the process of self-regulation which explains the transitions from one of these levels to the next higher." (Evans, 1973, p. 46) This process of assimilation requires greater attention from educators, because education is a matter of presenting the child with situations which offer problems that follow one from another, in order to facilitate transition to higher levels.

Implicit in the theory of stage development is the principle of spontaneity, and it must be clearly understood that it is the impulse to activity which is innate or spontaneous, and not the cognitive structure arising from spontaneous activity. "This obviously leads to placing all educational stress on the spontaneous aspects of the child's activity." (Piaget, 1973a, p. 11)

Implicit in spontaneous activity is the principle of readiness. The pre-operational child will begin to understand "conservation" as he discovers that any arrangement of ten pebbles will add up to the same number, but he will do this only when he is ready to assimilate this scheme by a process of transformation of the existing structure he has. His under-

standing of conservation is an "interiorization" of an action which he has succeeded in performing repeatedly and also interiorizing as thought, thereby laying the foundation for transfer of this understanding to other situations by a process of trial and error.

To summarize, influences affecting development of the intelligence are: biological factors--interactions of genome and physical milieu during growth; equilibration factors of actions; social factors of interindividual coordination; and factors of educative and cultural transmission. (Piaget, 1973b, pp. 145-50)

Cognitive Criterion 2: Need and Interest

Piaget, quoting Claparède, refers to the law of need and interest as the engine of the intellectual process, which "makes a reaction into an authentic act" and which is "the sole pivot around which the whole system must turn." (Piaget, 1970, pp. 152, 158-9) Piaget distinguishes between the affective element, the driving force, of actions and the structuring of actions, which is of a cognitive nature. (Piaget, 1973b, p. 32) The law of need and interest is therefore the starting point for a general psychology of cognition and affect. (Piaget, 1973b, p. 48)

Considering the need and interest component with reference to age group nine to eleven, these children are still somewhat characterized by the predominance of egocentric assimilation of reality into the self, although the direction of development is toward an eventual balance between assimilations

and accommodations. (Piaget, 1970, pp. 175-6)

The law of interest by which the adult is governed applies even more strongly to the child, who functions like an adult although with differing cognitive structures. The law of interest excludes the possibility of compulsory or heteronomous work, which is "an antipsychological anomaly". (Piaget, 1970, p. 152)

This age group is strongly characterized by a need for experiment in a playful manner. Assimilation in its purest form is play, in the sense of spontaneous, experimental activity, seemingly undirected. Citing Groos and Claparède, Piaget states that play is preparatory, developing perceptions, intelligence, impulses toward experiment, social instincts, etc. (Piaget, 1970, pp. 152-7) In the illustrative model the fourth-grade child is challenged to experiment in all phases of the sequence of integrated activities. This activity may range from pure experimental play without an obvious objective to the more directed kinds of activity such as research in a variety of media and in the field, although the illustrative model of this thesis tends toward goal-oriented activity in an experimental mode.

Piaget calls for activities and intellectual raw materials suitable for the age and interest, which do two things: (1) satisfy both a personal and a social need, and (2) at the same time confer cognitive structure upon the action. (Piaget, 1973b, p. 71)

## Cognitive Criterion 3: Operativity

Piaget defines intelligence as "the tool of coordination thanks to which the mind has been able to put facts in relation to each other". (Piaget, 1973a, p. 135) This particular definition has been of assistance to the writer in understanding the operative, as contrasted with the figurative, or perceptual, imitative, and imaging, aspect of intelligence. The difference between them is the difference between the stages and the states of intelligence. "I think that human knowledge is essentially active. To know is to assimilate reality into systems of transformation. To know is to transform reality in order to understand how a certain state is brought about." (Evans, 1973, pref. xliv) It is the relational component that is the essence of the active, or operative, nature of intelligence.

Keeping in mind the relational essence of operativity, the following statements can be made about this criterion:

Operativity is the unconscious, spontaneous, innate capacity to build and integrate cognitive structures into structures of the whole. (Evans, 1973, pref. xliv; Piaget, 1972, p. 328; and Piaget, 1973b, pp. 1-30)

Operativity is autoregulatory, autonomous, self-governing. (Evans, 1973, p. 46)

Operativity is equilibrative; that is, it assimilates new events into pre-existing cognitive structures, and it accommodates or transforms existing structures in response to the environment. (Evans, 1973, p. 78)

Operativity is characterized by increased de-centering

of the ego in the process of equilibration. (Piaget, 1973a, p. 111) Operativity is characterized by increasing awareness of self and of others. It is reciprocal, partaking of both assimilations and accommodations to reality, including other individuals. (Piaget, 1970, p. 175)

Operativity is conative, i.e., driven to act by need and interest; not passive. (Piaget, 1973b, pp. 70-71)

Operativity is hierarchical, i.e., successive in its development, summarizing itself in stages which succeed each other, and these stages cannot be skipped or re-ordered. It develops in stages characterized by increasing abstraction, logico-mathematical operations, problem solving, and stability. (Piaget, 1973b, pp. 60 and 167) Note that the stages of development can, however, be retarded or accelerated by the environment, although Piaget states that acceleration by acculturation has generic limits. (Piaget, 1973b, p. 29)

Finally, operativity, the essence of intelligence, is not mere understanding of reality, but rather a re-invention of reality in order to understand it. What is transformed, or changed, is both the coordinations of the mind and to a greater or lesser extent the external reality itself. A simple example of this dual transformation is the various arrangement of pebbles by the young child in the process of discovering, or understanding, the principle of conservation. Note that although the child does not understand the principle, he knows how to apply it. In summary, operativity is at once structural, transformational, and inventive, going well

beyond the theory of learning as pure response to stimulus--or rather, widening the concept of education to include the idea of intellectual development as active rather than passive. This analysis of intelligence, or operativity, is clearly presented in Piaget's article on "Advances in Child and Adolescent Psychology". (Piaget, 1972, pp. 321-35)

Commenting on the active nature of intelligence and its relation to education, Piaget states:

> There is nothing more difficult for the adult than to know how to appeal to the spontaneous and real activity of the child or adolescent. Only this activity, oriented and constantly stimulated by the teacher, but remaining free in its attempts, its tentative efforts, and even its errors can lead to intellectual independence. It is not by knowing the Pythagorean theorem that free exercise of personal reasoning power is assured; it is in having rediscovered its existence and its usage. The goal of intellectual education is not to know how to repeat or retain ready-made truths (a truth that is parroted is only a half-truth). It is in learning to master the truth by oneself at the risk of losing a lot of time and of going through all the roundabout ways that are inherent in real activity.
>
> If this must be brought about regarding the methodology of mathematics, how much more reason there is to appeal to activity in teaching languages, geography, history, natural sciences, etc. That is, in every field where knowledge of facts has no value except in relation to the processes of discovery that enable it to be absorbed.
>
> (Piaget, 1973a, pp. 105-6)

Cognitive Criterion 4: Autonomy

The above discussion reveals that operativity takes the form of equilibrations, or openings and closings in response both to the environment and to the needs of the organism itself. This equilibrative process is self-regulatory, or autonomous,

and is "at the very heart of the development of intelligence. Without it there is no way of explaining novelty." (Evans, 1973, p. 46) A thorough account of the process of equilibration, or autoregulation, may be found in Evans' chapter on "Cybernetics, Mathematics and Education". (Evans, 1973, pp. 45-53)

Piaget repeatedly emphasizes the need of the child to be an experimenter, and the need for the schools to exploit the child's natural curiosity, "the important thing in the process of human development". (Evans, 1973, p. 68) According to Piaget, the essential elements of autonomy are: (1) the child's interest or curiosity regarding his own genuine form of activity; (2) observation; (3) practice or experimentation; (4) distinction between comprehension and memory; and (5) development of the individual in a social environment. (Piaget, 1970, pp. 138-41)

A discussion integrating autonomy, reciprocity, and personhood as Piaget views them, follows Criterion 6.

Cognitive Criterion 5: Reciprocity

A final component of the active method of education, as defined by Piaget, is the element of reciprocity, which is the counterpart of autonomy. Reciprocity originates in the discovery by the child of the mobility of concrete operations--that is, their reversibility, expressed mathematically in the rule that every operation includes an inverse, as with addition and subtraction, or a reciprocal, etc. Reciprocity characterizes not only the growth of intelligence but also the growth of personality, or personhood. According to Piaget, the

child's activities become increasingly reciprocal and therefore socialized in proportion as his egocentricity gives way to a de-centering, and the assimilative process is balanced by greater accommodations to external reality. (Piaget, 1973a, pp. 109-126; and Piaget, 1970, pp. 175-6) Reciprocity is characterized by an increasing stability and increasing extension of the organism in the process of opening and closing, i.e., pushing back the boundaries of the environment to meet its ever widening need for experience, and then integrating this experience into coordinated plans of action.

Through the processes of Criteria 1 through 5--stage development of intelligence, need and interest, operativity, autonomy, and reciprocity--, the personality emerges. That is, the cognitive reversibility attained in the stage of concrete operations (ages seven through eleven) is paralleled by an increasing reciprocity between the ego and the environment, a process Piaget calls "ethical judgment" or "moral autonomy". (Piaget, 1973a, pp. 91 and 119)

Cognitive Criterion 6: Personality

Personality, or personhood in the Piagetian sense, is an inevitable result of the interaction of the individual with his environment as described in the five preceding pedagogical criteria.

Piaget describes two kinds of regulations of importance to education psychology in To Understand Is to Invent: The Future of Education (Piaget, 1973a, pp. 109-126), from which the following discusion is taken.

These regulations are: the externally imposed, or heteronomous; and the spontaneous, or autonomous, self-regulation through the child's own interactions with the environment, whereby the child becomes de-centered and thereby develops personality in the Piagetian sense. Characteristics of personality are: independence, or autonomy, and reciprocity based on mutual respect between equals, elements which are to be contrasted with heteronomous or unilateral respect based on mingled fear and affection for the parent or teacher--a kind of respect that builds dependency rather than true personality. Mutual respect derives from participation in the elaboration of the rules whereby individuals obligate themselves to the group. Therefore, mutual respect is the source of obligations, but these obligations include the right to participate in changing the rules. Mutual respect does not imply non-cooperation with the teacher, but rather cooperation between children and adults in the classroom.

With reference to the development of personality, children of age group nine to eleven are becoming aware of both their personality and that of others. However, the first half of fourth grade is characterized by more assimilative transactions, although it should be noted that the equilibrative process involves both functions from birth onward. In the last half of fourth grade, especially in the integrated activities method of social studies, the children begin to be preoccupied with ideas of fair play and ways of effectuating it between themselves. That is, they begin to be aware of reciprocity

in such formalized arrangements as game playing at recess and in committee work in the classroom.

Piaget's hypotheses regarding the spontaneous functions of intellectual development as defined in Cognitive Criteria 1 through 5 show a validating correspondence with the descriptions of fourth-grade children by the three social studies authorities cited above. Furthermore, the sequential integrated activities method described in Chapters V through VII shows in the writer's view, a good correspondence with Cognitive Criteria 1 through 5.

Extending personhood philosophically and geographically, Piaget states that egocentrism is the basic obstacle to progress among nations in intellectual coordination and ethical reciprocity. (Piaget, 1973a, pp. 136-9) Consequently, Piaget argues for the right to full development of the personality, as stated in Article 26 of The Universal Declaration of Human Rights promulgated by UNESCO, a subcommittee of which is The International Committee on the Development of Education, chaired by Piaget in 1948. (Piaget, 1973a, pp. 87-91) Piaget recommends internationalizing history, geography, living languages, literature and science, where common efforts of the whole race are neglected. (Piaget, 1973a, pp. 139-40) Piaget also encourages inter-school and international correspondence among students under conditions of complete freedom from criticism. (Piaget, 1973a, pp. 141-2) It is here that the seventh affective criterion, socialization, intersects with the sixth cognitive criterion, personhood.

## Summary Discussion of the First Six Cognitive Criteria

What has been said thus far about the first six cognitive criteria might be paraphrased as follows: If educators continued to assume, as did nineteenth-century pedagogy, that logic was pre-formed, or innate, then teachers would not need to supply the kinds of activities that enhance and develop the tool of the intellect, which Piaget defines as the ability to put facts in relation to one another quickly and accurately. The teacher could teach a child anything and he would grasp it, according to Bruner (Bruner, 1960, p. 33), a statement with which Piaget took issue. (Evans, 1973, pp. 60-61)

Furthermore, if the teacher assumes that there are not clearly defined stages of intellectual development, or if the teacher has merely an intuitive or pragmatic conviction based on long experience that children of a certain age are unable to attain to certain levels of conceptualization, then he cannot always accurately tailor curriculum and method to the contours of the developing child.

Further, if teachers continued to assume that children are different from adults in that the law of need and interest does not apply to them, Piaget has refuted this assumption, revealing that children are like adults in all but their fund and content of cognitive structures. They are as easily bored as are adults when forced to sit for several hours a day and spend most of this time receiving and responding to verbal and written instruction year after year.

Finally, if teachers continued to assume that they can inculcate concepts, including numerically clothed ones, in a child's mind at any age as if applying permanent ink to a tabula rasa, without the performance of actions of which the conceptualizations are the interiorizations, then their efforts are vain, and, moreover, leave the student with a sense of failure and doubt, especially if he is highly motivated by the need for external approval.

In summary, it is the quality of operativity, or thought arising from appropriate activity, that is spontaneous, innate, rather than the thoughts, the cognitive structures, themselves. Cognitive structures must be constructed step by step and sequentially, from the earliest pre-operational stage of intellectual development, through the concrete operational stage and finally eventuating in the stage of formal operations, or, the stage of logical thought. It is interesting to note that Piaget calls for cultural anthropology to inquire whether some primitive societies ever attain the final stage of formal operations, and the extent to which this possible truncation of stages, if evident, might affect the earlier stages of the child's development in such a society. (Piaget, 1973b, p. 161)

As Piaget defines it, the great problem of education is to provide those kinds of activities which are tailored to the contours of the child's spontaneous development through successive stages. (Piaget, 1970, p. 151) In other words, the goal of the schools must be to encourage the development in the child of the tool, and not merely the conceptualizations,

of intelligence. Furthermore, the child needs an environment encouraging self-regulation and peer regulation in which to develop both the tool of the intellect and his personhood.

# THE "AFFECTIVE" PSYCHOLOGY OF THE HOLISTIC-DYNAMIC PSYCHOLOGISTS IN RELATION TO EDUCATION

## Introduction

Pribram wrote in 1964 regarding the reinforcing process basic to education as having an intrinsic neurological structure which respects the intrinsic nature of the materials to be taught. (See p. 28.) This chapter deals with the reinforcing processes of the human psyche with relevance to the processes of education, and to social studies in particular. The psychological reinforcing process is the "need and interest" component of cognitive development referred to by Piaget in Chapter III.

This chapter deals with the personality theories of humanistic psychologists Abraham H. Maslow and Carl R. Rogers as they are applied to pedagogy. Works upon which this chapter are based are: The Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development yearbook Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming: A New Focus for Education (ASCD, 1962); Maslow's definitive work Motivation and Personality (Maslow, 1970); Maslow's The Farther Reaches of Human Nature (Maslow, 1971); Rogers' On Becoming a Person: A Therapist's View of Psychotherapy (Rogers, 1961); and Rogers' Freedom to Learn (Rogers, 1969). In addition, the writer draws from the writings of Karen Horney with respect to

spontaneous growth as a fundamental organizing principle in psychoanalytic theory. Publication information regarding these works is contained in the bibliography to this work. In addition to these works, the reader is referred to Appendix D for a list of teacher resources which may be useful in evaluating recent trends in social studies and in psychopedagogical theory. The teaching model under consideration in Chapters V through VII of this paper is concerned with personal and intellectual development within an academic context, applying the holistic-dynamic concepts of motivation and personality directly to an academic method.

## Holism-Dynamicism Defined

It should be noted at the outset that definition of the hypotheses of these affective psychologies presents difficulties for two reasons: (1) because the nature of the subject matter--the whole psyche in its conative, cognitive, affective, and physical or sensorimotor, functioning is less amenable to precise verbal description; and (2) because the very notions of knowledge, science, man, and psychology are undergoing profound change in light of the "uncovering" methodologies of psychoanalysis and psychotherapy, as well as through ongoing researches in neuropsychology, electrophysiology, and experimental psychology in lateral specialization of the brain.

The following definitions represent the writer's understanding of the terms "holism" and "dynamicism" as applied to the laws of personality by Maslow, Rogers, Horney, and other psychologists.

Holism, as applied to the personality, refers to its organization, which is unitary in the biological sense. That is, the personality is unitary in function as the body is unitary in function, non-dissectable in an atomistic, mechanistic, sense, and more highly organized and intradependent than the external world of the gestaltists. (Maslow, 1970, pp. 306-7) The psychologically healthy human being may be said to be growing in a holistic, or synergic, way, and, furthermore, without a higher limit to his psychic and intellectual development. Holism as a research methodology applied to personality, refers to analysis and synthesis of personality beginning with a perception of the whole person whose "parts", or elements of psychic organization, are examined through the lens of his whole identity, including his immediate environment. (Maslow, 1970, pp. 295-9)

Dynamicism, as used by the writer, refers to the human phenomenon of spontaneous growth towards an innate higher nature. As used in clinical psychology, the reader is referred to Maslow's definition of the holistic and dynamic elements of his positive theory of motivation and its historical antecedents. (Maslow, 1970, p. 35) In addition, the interpretation of dynamicism here used is the interpretation of neurosis as a blockage of psychic growth rather than as a static, deterministic conflict between instinct and counter-instinct, as it is defined by Freud. The former interpretation of dynamicism was first enunciated by Karen Horney in 1917 (Harold Kelman introducing Horney's Feminine Psychology [New York: W. W. Norton

& Company, Inc., 1967], p. 13); and this interpretation of dynamicism is touched upon later in the chapter, in the section on socialization and values.

As interpreted pedagogically, holism-dynamicism may be defined somewhat as follows: The teacher's living data is the whole child in his conative--or driving and wishing--, cognitive, emotional, physical, and aesthetic functioning; and not only the child as he is, but also the child as he is becoming moment by moment and year by year. In Piaget's words, this child is a "relational totality" and not "a global totality in a fixed form". (Evans, 1973, p. 11) Watsonian behaviorism, as applied in psychopedagogy, while an advance over the earlier mentalism, is limited in that it explains only the surface reality, whereas clinically derived holistic-dynamic personality theories reveal that there are at least three sets of forces determining behavior: the culture, the situation, and the nature of the organism. (Maslow, 1970, pp. 322-3) The holistic-dynamic psychologists are primarily concerned with the child's intrapsychic reality and how it relates to external reality--in short, with the child's character formation, with which the holistic teacher is primarily concerned.

It is as though our holistic teacher were saying: "I am on the alert for that unique being within each child who unconsciously and consciously is bent on creating himself through whatever senses he has--his body/mind--in relating to his environment. I know that in proportion as I understand the personality organization of this unique being, I can assist

in his cognitive and affective response to the challenge of the curriculum with certain attitudes and capacities of my own, as well as with appropriate curricula. How can I approach this child psychologically?" Maslow might reply, for the teacher as well as for the scientist:

> The scientist of course will resist these all-or-none tendencies to dichotomize and rubricize, and will continue to think in terms of degree, and to be holistically aware of many, many determinants acting simultaneously. He will try as hard as he can to be receptive to the data, differentiating them as clearly as he can from his wishes, hopes and fears.
> (Maslow, 1970, pref. xxvi)

## Structure of the Chapter

As in the chapter on Piagetian theory, the writer has formulated criteria for a hypothetical teaching model which integrate the psychological and psychopedagogical theories of the holistic-dynamic psychologies of Maslow, Rogers, and others. The accompanying diagram indicates the eight holistic-dynamic (affective) pedagogical criteria (Column I) in relation to the organization of personality (Column II); the eight criteria in relation to the whole person (Column III); and, finally, the eight criteria in relation to educational objectives, with respect to social studies (Column IV). It will be seen from the diagram that the eight holistic-dynamic pedagogical criteria selected by the writer are comprised of the need hierarchy and the holistic functioning of the total human organism (Column I). These needs will be discussed in relation to their significance as prime motivators of the personality (Column II). They are related also to the underlying positive view of human nature

Column I: Holistic-Dynamic (Affective) Educational Criteria:

Maslow's Need Hierarchy and Rogers' Full Functioning:
(See pp. 61-86)

1. Safety: security, structure, order, law, limits, etc.
2. Belongingness: love, affection
3. Esteem: self-esteem; need for esteem of others
4. Need to know and understand
5. Self-actualization
6. Creativity and peak experience
7. Socialization: values and citizenship
8. Holistic functioning of the personality

Basic Needs

Higher Needs

EIGHT HOLISTIC-DYNAMIC (AFFECTIVE) PEDAGOGICAL CRITERIA

IN RELATION TO SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING

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Column II
Personality Organization
As Interpreted by
Holistic-Dynamic Theory
(See p. 60)

Two Central Premises of
Holistic-Dynamic Psychology

→ Structure of Man's Higher Instinctoid Nature

→ Holistic-Dynamic Functioning of the Personality

Column III
The Whole Person

The Inner Nature:
Human psychological structure and function (in addition to anatomical and physiological structure)
(ASCD, 1962, p. 35)

Column IV
Pedagogical Objectives for the Social Studies
(See pp. 84-86 and 164-168)



Identification of motivation with an adequate sense of self

Identification of cognition with an adequate sense of self

Identification of values with an adequate sense of self

held by the positive psychologists Maslow, Rogers, Horney, and others (Column III, "The Whole Person"). The hierarchy of needs is also related in the following text to the three pedagogical concerns selected by the writer as basic to psychological and psychopedagogical theory: identification of motivation with an adequate sense of self; identification of cognition with an adequate sense of self; and, identification of values with an adequate sense of self. Combs uses the adjective "adequate" to mean "fully functioning and self-actualizing" and not just "good enough to get by". (ASCD, 1962, pref. iii)

## General Holistic-Dynamic (Affective) Criteria and Sub-Criteria for a Hypothetical Teaching Model

Following are two central premises of holistic-dynamic personality theory (Column II of the diagram) around which educational criteria may be developed. They are, as the writer understands it, the organizing theories of Maslow's definitive work, Motivation and Personality.

I Man has a higher nature, and this higher nature is instinctoid, i.e., part of his essence.

II Human nature is profoundly holistic in contradiction to the analytic-dissecting-atomistic-Newtonian approach of the behaviorisms and of Freudianian psychoanalysis.

(Paraphrased from Maslow, 1970, pref. ix)

Maslow defines the psychologically healthy man as living in harmony with his inherent nature, as being Aristotle's natural man, but more fully revealed by the "uncovering" psychologies of twentieth-century psychotherapy and psychoanalysis. (Maslow, 1970, pp. 269-70)

The two foregoing premises may be phrased as general affective criteria for a hypothetical teaching model, i.e., (1) To what extent does the model encourage the development of the child's higher nature? and (2) To what extent does the model encourage the child's holistic functioning? These two general affective criteria may be defined by the subcriteria which follow: Holistic-Dynamic (Affective) Criteria 1 through 8.

## Affective Criteria 1 through 7: Gratification of the Basic Needs And of the Higher Needs

The first three needs are considered by Maslow to be basic, and, in addition, two are here included as possibly basic.

> Holistic-Dynamic (Affective) Criteria 1 through 5 for a Hypothetical Teaching Model: To what extent does the model provide for basic need gratification, including the need for security, the need for belongingness, and the need for esteem, as well as the need to know and understand, and the need for self-actualization.

The basic needs are categorized by Maslow in his theory of motivation and personality in Chapter 3 through 9 of Motivation and Personality. Maslow considers the basic needs and the

metaneeds--or the lower needs and the higher needs--as the intrinsic reinforcers or motivators of human beings. (Maslow, 1970, pref. xiii) Maslow classifies five sets of basic needs, which are organized in a hierarchy of relative prepotency--that is to say, the lower need requires gratification before the next higher need appears. The basic needs are, in order of prepotency:

A. The physiological needs such as food, warmth, etc., which, not being purely psychic needs, are not counted by the writer among the holistic-dynamic pedagogical criteria, even though they are here included as basic to the need hierarchy.

1. The need for safety, meaning security, stability, dependency, protection, freedom from fear, from anxiety and chaos; need for structure, order, law, limits; strength in the protector.
2. The need for belongingness, including love and affection.
3. The need for esteem, meaning a stable, firmly based, usually high evaluation of oneself; self-respect, self-esteem, need for esteem of others.
4. The need to know and understand.
5. The need for self-actualization.

This list was drawn from Maslow's discussion of the basic needs in Motivation and Personality (Maslow, 1970, pp. 35-58) In the above reference Maslow classifies the last two needs, the need to know and understand, and the need for self-actualization, as higher needs which are possibly basic. The need

to know and understand is especially strong in children, according to Maslow. A sixth psychic need which is possibly basic in some individuals and is definitely a metaneed, is the aesthetic need, which the writer equates with the need for creativity and peak experience, although the aesthetic need is also interpreted by Maslow as an exceptional talent demanding expression.

It is the writer's feeling that gratification of the basic needs, being a pre-condition for emergence of the higher needs, is a legitimate consideration of educators. The writer assumes that, in the degree to which these needs are gratified in early childhood, the child is free to develop his autonomous higher nature in and out of the classroom.

As has been noted, Maslow places the need to know and understand and the need for self-actualization in the middle of the need hierarchy, and frequently refers to these needs as both basic and metaneeds. The implication for educators is that gratification of these two needs must occur before and along with socialization, if the law of prepotency of basic needs holds for these two needs. Finally, it must also be noted that man's inner nature, organized around a hierarchy of needs, is subtle and delicate, and that the instinctoid needs, both lower and higher, are weak and easily repressed by the culture. (Maslow, 1970, p. 82)

## Affective Criteria 4 through 7: Gratification of the Higher Needs

The remainder of this chapter is a definition of the higher needs and the need for holistic functioning of the

personality. The higher needs are here analyzed in greater detail because of their greater need for expression in children of school age. It should be understood that the confinement of the higher needs to the five discussed in this paper by no means exhausts the list of the metaneeds, as a review of Maslow's self-actualizing people will indicate. (See pp. 69-71.) The writer selected these particular higher needs because they seem the most profound, the most discussed by Maslow and Rogers, and the most relevant to education at this time.

The following remarks concern general distinctions between the lower and higher needs. Satisfaction of the higher needs is where individuality begins, as distinguished from the basic needs common to all beings. (Maslow, 1970, pp. 134-5) Confirming this, Maslow notes the therapies of Carl Rogers, Jung, Horney, etc., which claim to bring out the patient's intrinsic nature, rather than trying to create a personality for him. (Maslow, 1970, p. 93) The metaneeds are the drives to become aware of "what one <u>is</u> biologically, temperamentally, constitutionally as a member of a particular species". (Maslow, 1970, p. 95) The higher needs are growth values, whereas the basic needs--security, belongingness, and esteem--partake of the Darwinian survival values. (Maslow, 1970, p. 104)

Characteristics of the higher needs are the following: They appear to be expressive, i.e., relatively unmotivated (Maslow, 1970, p. 135); and also unlearned, difficult to control or influence, effortless in expression (Maslow, 1970, p. 136); possibly peculiar to the human species and to no other (Maslow,

1970, p. 91); and as instinctoid and as biological as the lower needs and not dichotomistic with them (Maslow, 1970, pp. 100-101).

### Affective Criterion 4: Gratification of the Need to Know and Understand

Holistic-Dynamic (Affective) Criterion 4 for a Hypothetical Teaching Model: To what extent does the model gratify the need to know and understand?

The need to know and understand implies a more holistic definition of cognition than the traditional pedagogical interpretation, which has most frequently been limited to purely rational forms of activity, such as information accumulation, memorization, conceptualization, and, more recently, evaluation and theory formation. Holistic cognition, on the other hand, implies exercise of both the rational and non-rational processes of the self, as well as an awareness and appreciation of the phenomenological, or concrete, as well as the consensually validated, or abstract, aspects of knowledge. (Cf. Wilson Van Dusen, "The Natural Depth in Man", Person to Person: The Problem of Being Human, Carl R. Rogers and Barry Stevens, et al. [New York: Pocket Books, 1971], p. 215) In the lower grades this can be interpreted as fuller use of the range of capacities, as exemplified in the sequential integrated activities method (See Chapters V through VII.) In the secondary schools and in college this can be interpreted as application of theory to practice, such as Nader recommended in using university-level research in "public citizen" projects, as for

example, the investigation of water resources, their protection from pollution, and political influences affecting water distribution, as a concrete approach to an abstract, university-level discipline such as chemistry.

For the purposes of this paper, two sources are used for a definition of holistic cognition: firstly, Maslow's interpretation of cognition of the individual and the generic; and, secondly, the circular paradigm for learning which links cognition with an adequate sense of self, as represented in Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming. (See p. 68.) The following is a summary of Maslow's discussion of cognition of the individual and the generic, or the concrete and the abstract, as defined in Motivation and Personality. There are four aspects of cognition, which include attention, perception, learning, and thinking.

Holistic attention includes not only attention for purposes of classification, but also fresh, idiosyncratic attention to the unique event. The difference between attention and perception, according to Maslow, is the relatively greater stress on selective, preparatory, organizing and mobilizing actions of the concept of attention. (Maslow, 1970, p. 205)

Holistic perception is the opposite of stereotyping; it is the "absorption or registration of the intrinsic nature of the real event". Holistic perception is non-categorizing, non-labeling, and non-stereotyping. (Maslow, 1970, pp. 209-210)

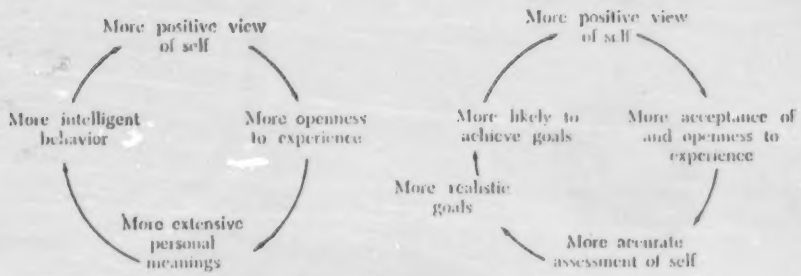
Holistic learning is "character or intrinsic learning" as a result of all of one's life experiences, rather than exclusive reliance upon habit, which is an attempt to solve

a problem by using a previous successful solution. (Maslow, 1970, pp. 214 and 217)

Holistic-dynamic thinking is essentially problem-solving through perceiving as clearly as possible the intrinsic nature of the problem, seeking to perceive in a problem its solution, rather than problem solving in the light of past experience only. In this definition of holistic-dynamic thinking, Maslow points out that its processes are more clearly allied to the perceptual processes than to the memory processes. Therefore, it has the meaning of creativeness, uniqueness, ingenuity, and inventiveness. From this point of view, thinking is seen as the opposite of learning, rather than as a type of learning. It rejects a set of prefabricated spectacles with which to look at the world in every aspect, e.g., what to believe, what to like, what to approve, what to feel guilty about. (Maslow, 1970, pp. 218-24)

Finally, the problems surrounding language and theory-building are discussed by Maslow under holistic cognition. (Maslow, 1970, pp. 224-8) It should be noted that Maslow does not intend that cognition of the individual, phenomenological reality is a substitute for generic cognition, or abstract thought, but rather that the two kinds of cognition need equal emphasis in this culture. (Cf. Maslow, "Goals and Implications of Humanistic Education", in Farther Reaches of Human Nature, 1971, pp. 180-95)

Combs' definition of personal adequacy and its relationship to cognition is reproduced in diagram form from Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming, and presents a new paradigm for learning.


More positive view of self
More openness to experience
More extensive personal meanings
More intelligent behavior
More positive view of self
More acceptance of and openness to experience
More accurate assessment of self
More realistic goals
More likely to achieve goals

(Combs, ASCD, 1962, p. 185)

The first circle of the diagram represents the link between the self and improved cognition as it relates to behavior, and the second circle represents the link between the self and improved cognition as it relates to goal-setting. To summarize the diagram, the adequate person is well informed. Because he has a more positive view of the self, he is more open to experience, acquires more extensive person meanings, and exhibits more intelligent behavior and goals.

The implication of the diagram is that there are sectors of the circle where the teacher can initiate or reinforce the circular dynamic, by "working with present perceptions, feelings, attitudes and ideas of the learner". (ASCD, 1962, p. 183) Both Maslow and Rogers emphasize the relationship between the psychologically healthy human being and more efficient cognition. (Cf. Maslow, 1970, p. 92; and Rogers, 1969, pp. 286-8)

In summary, psychologically healthy cognition is an awareness of and experiencing of the holistic, rather than the atomistic or discrete, and the dynamic, rather than the static or unchanging, nature of reality itself, including the intrapsychic reality and the external reality.

## Affective Criterion 5: Gratification of the Need for Self-Actualization

Holistic-Dynamic (Affective) Criterion 5 for a Hypothetical Teaching Model: To what extent does the model gratify the need for self-actualization?

A description of Maslow's self-actualizing people will be used as a phenomenological definition of self-actualization, and this description is followed by a discussion of self-actualization in children. Maslow arrived at the common characteristics of self-actualizing people through a holistic technique called "iteration", wherein the researcher begins with a "vague grasped whole", or folk definition of self-actualization, which is refined through successive analyses and syntheses and redefinitions in accordance with observed phenomena. (Maslow, 1970, p. 299)

Self-actualizing people have a more efficient perception of reality and more comfortable relations with it. They are accepting of self, others, and nature. They are spontaneous, simple, and natural. They are problem-centered rather than means-centered. They have the quality of detachment, the need for privacy. They express autonomy, independence of culture and environment; will; they are active agents.

Self-actualizing people experience continued freshness of appreciation. They have mystic experiences and peak experiences. They express "gemeinschaftsgefuhl"--feeling for mankind, sense of specieshood superseding nationhood, race, sex, class, etc. They experience profound interpersonal relation-

ships. They display a democratic character structure. They are able to discriminate between means and ends, and between good and evil.

Self-actualizing people have a philosophical, unhostile sense of humor. They are creative. They have imperfections. They have a firm foundation of values. They are more easily able to resolve dichotomies between heart and head, reason and instinct, cognition and conation. All of the above characteristics of self-actualizing people were taken from Maslow's Motivation and Personality, pp. 153-80.

These traits may be compared with Rogers' view of the good life as follows: an increasing openness to experience; increasingly existential living; and increasing trust in one's organism; fuller functioning; more creative functioning; basic trustworthiness; greater richness of life. (Rogers, 1961, pp. 187-96)

It should be noted in reviewing these characteristics that self-actualization in children, as applied in this paper, is a different phenomenon from the self-actualization of Maslow's mature adults. Adult cognition is of a more sophisticated, although no less conative, order. "The needs for knowledge, for understanding, for a life philosophy, for a theoretical frame of reference, for a value system, these are themselves conative, part of our primitive and animal nature . . ." (Maslow, 1970, p. 101) Self-actualizing adults are able both to "concretize", to use Maslow's term, in the sense of perceiving reality appreciatively and idiosyncratically, and to abstract,

or generalize, regarding reality. Children, because of the limitations of their cognitive structures, are not able to abstract formally until the approach of adolescence. Children's abstractions are a limited and inadequate product of syncretic assimilation, called "transduction". (Piaget, 1970, p. 165)

Self-actualization in children is here intended to mean the maximizing of autonomous and reciprocal functioning in the classroom, and the consequent development of personality in both the Piagetian and the holistic-dynamic sense of fuller functioning. The writer has included Maslow's description of self-actualizing adults as a kind of model of healthy adulthood toward which children progress in a favorable environment.

Finally, regarding the pedagogical criterion for self-actualization, the writer feels this one to be the most inclusive of the needs, in that it requires fulfillment of all the others for its own gratification.

### Affective Criterion 6: Gratification of the Need for Creativity and Peak Experience

Holistic-Dynamic (Affective) Criterion 6 for a Hypothetical Teaching Model: To what extent does the model encourage creativity and peak experiences?

Maslow states that aesthetic perception, creation, and peak experiences are central rather than peripheral to human experience. (ASCD, 1962, p. 45) He also states that children often have peak experiences, or moments of high intensity, and that teachers can encourage such experiences by themselves being joyful and self-actualizing. (Maslow, 1971, p. 188)

Rogers defines the elements of creativity as: (a) an observable product; (b) a novel construction; and (c) an interaction between the individual and the materials, events, people, or circumstances of his life, thus expanding the applicability of the term "creativity" to the entire life process. (Rogers, 1961, p. 350) The inner conditions of creativity are: openness to experience; an internal locus of evaluation; and the ability to toy with elements and concepts. Prerequisites for creativity are: discipline; the anxiety of separateness, and the desire to communicate. (Rogers, 1961, pp. 353-6)

As cited in Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming, signs of creative teaching are: less teacher dominance; less teacher talk, less questioning for right answers; less emphasis on failure; appreciation of children's work, but without manipulative praise; assuring clear definition of goals and understanding of structure; giving responsibility and freedom the children can handle; giving freedom to express feelings; giving freedom to explore ideas; encouraging respect for information; evaluation for growth, not grades; etc. (ASCD, 1962, p. 237) Other attributes of creative teaching are: creative use of media; problem-centering rather than means-centering; openness and originality in the social sciences; and integration of the curriculum. (ASCD, 1962, p. 160-61) Factors which hinder creativity are: preoccupation with conformity, order, authority, the historical point of view, cookbook approaches; solitary learning, elimination of self from the classroom, etc. (ASCD, 1962, p. 145-6)

The writer believes that the attributes of creativity and creative teaching as delineated by Rogers and the writers of Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming bear a marked resemblance to the Piagetian attributes of operativity, autonomy, and reciprocity in the development of intelligence in the young child. In addition, the whole of Piaget's recent work, To Understand Is to Invent: The Future of Education, is a treatise on the development of intelligence as an inventive, creative act from the moment of birth onward.

### Affective Criterion 7: Gratification of the Need for Socialization

> Holistic-Dynamic (Affective) Criterion 7 for a Hypothetical Teaching Model: To what extent does the model encourage the need for socialization, or identification with society, through (a) growth-orientation of the personality; (b) foundation of educational values upon the need hierarchy; and (c) emphasis on an organismic, as well as a conceptualizing, valuing system?

The term "socialization" as here used refers to the citizenship component of social studies, as viewed in light of the more personalized educational criteria of holistic-dynamic psychopedagogy. Maslow and Rogers often state that there is no dichotomy between personal and social goals in the psychologically healthy human being.

While it is not the intent of this paper to compare in detail the goals of the 1975 Social Sciences Education Framework for California Public Schools, or the NAEP goals

for both the social studies and citizenship, with the Piagetian or the holistic-dynamic psychopedagogical goals, there are two possible areas of divergence between the two former sets of goals and the two latter sets of goals. (See Appendix D for publication data on the Framework and the NAEP evaluations.)

Firstly, there appears to be no direct mention of self-actualization as a social studies goal in the official sets of goals. Secondly, there does not appear to be sufficient allowance made for the necessities of the first five Piagetian criteria as distilled in Chapter III, in the delineation of illustrative behavioral objectives for fourth-grade children as listed in the Social Sciences Education Framework for California Public Schools, pp. 12, 14, 16, 26, 32, 34, 40, and 46. In the overall view, however, these illustrative objectives are interdisciplinary and humanistic--not incompatible in theory with the holistic approach to the social studies. However, to paraphrase Piaget, it is the active methods chosen by the teacher to lead the child toward formulation of his own conceptualizations of the material: these are the difficult and elusive goals of the curriculum designer and the individual teacher.

The writer has summarized a holistic-dynamic value theory upon which to base citizenship training, as having at least three components: the growth principle of the human psyche as the primary personal and social value; the hierarchy of needs as the foundation for a system of human values; and an operative, or organismic, valuing process, as supplementing a conceived valuing process.

### The Growth Principle

The writer considers foremost among the humanistic

values the principle of spontaneous growth through self-awareness, as defined by Karen Horney in Neurosis and Human Growth: The Struggle Toward Self-Realization (New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1950), p. 15. Harold Kelman, introducing Horney's Feminine Psychology (New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1967), p. 13, states that her viewpoint regarding psychic blockage, and consequent destructiveness, is holistic, presumably because it sees man as innately healthy or whole and as sick only when blocked; and as not innately dichotomized within himself into a good and evil nature, which is the Freudian view as expressed in his theory of neurosis as the struggle of instinct and counter-instinct. Horney thus presents both a therapeutic method and a value system, in which "the criterion for what we cultivate or reject in ourselves lies in the question: is a particular attitude or drive inducive or obstructive to my human growth?" (Horney, 1950, p. 15) Horney's rule may be summarized as self-knowledge for the purpose of liberating the forces of spontaneous growth. As with Rogerian therapy, the writer views this psychological criterion as having applications for education as well as for therapy.

## Needs as the Foundation for A System of Values

In addition to the primacy of the principle of spontaneous growth, the writer includes the primacy of the need hierarchy as an element of a holistic-dynamic value theory. According to Maslow, the hierarchy of needs

> . . . constitute for me the foundation of a system of intrinsic human values, human goods that validate themselves, that are

> intrinsically good and desirable and that need no further justification. This is a hierarchy of values which are to be found in the very essence of human nature itself. These are not only wanted and desired by all human beings, but also needed in the sense that they are necessary to avoid illness and psychopathology. To say the same thing in another vocabulary, these basic needs and the metaneeds . . . are also the intrinsic reinforcers, the unconditioned stimuli which can be used as a basis upon which can be erected all sorts of instrumental learnings and conditionings. That is to say that in order to get these intrinsic goods, animals and men are willing to learn practically anything that will achieve for them these ultimate goods. (Maslow, 1970, pref. xiii)

In this quotation Maslow makes a connection between a biologically rooted value system and a biologically rooted theory of motivation. In other words, the hierarchy of human needs both determines what is desirable and valuable to the individual, and also constitutes a primal motivating force. The relationship of a need-gratifying value system to the citizenship, or socialization, component of social studies instruction lies in the hypothesis of the positive psychologies that a healthy, need-gratified, human being tends to be soundly and realistically social. (Rogers, 1969, pp. 290-91)

### Organismic Valuing Process

The writer has selected as the third and final component of a holistic-dynamic value theory the Rogerian view of the valuing process itself. The following is a description of an infant's way of valuing, which, according to Rogers, is an element of psychological health in adults as well.

> What is going on seems best described as an organismic valuing process, in which each element, each moment of what he is

> experiencing is somehow weighed, and selected or rejected, depending on whether, at that moment, it tends to actualize the organism or not. This complicated weighing of experiences is clearly an organismic, not a conscious, or symbolic function. These are operative, not conceived, values.
>
> (Rogers, 1969, p. 242)

Rogers also notes the degree of external influence upon the child, including educational and parental pressures, which may lead him to distrust his total functioning as a behavioral guide. (Rogers, 1969, p. 245) In regard to the infant's way of valuing, it may be well to recall Maslow's distinction between the cognition of the infant or child and the healthy adult, who retains a trust in his total functioning, including trust in the non-rational, or intuitive, while at the same time he is able to,and delights in,abstracting from concrete experience in the valuing process. (Maslow, 1971, p. 254)

As the writer understands it, the operative, or organismic, valuing process supplements, rather than replaces, a conceptualized valuing process, or conceptualized values, such as fair play. To paraphrase the holistic-dynamic psychologists, the psychologically healthy child can generally be trusted to do the right thing for himself and for others, because it is natural, needful, for him to do so.

In summary, with regard to "holistic socialization", the essential difference between the positive psychologies and the traditional psychologies is in their opposing views of destructiveness as growth blockage on the one hand, and as instinctual, and therefore ineradicable, on the other hand.

Furthermore, the positive psychologies place no upward limit on the growth of human nature, as contrasted with the "down-leveling of the motivations" described by Maslow. (Maslow, 1970, pref. xiv)

## Sociological Implications of Holistic-Dynamic Values

Rogers, Maslow, and Horney locate growth-enhancing or growth-blocking tendencies not only in the individual but also in his cultural matrix. (Cf. Maslow, 1971, pp. 199-211; Rogers, 1969, p. 245; and Horney, 1950, p. 89) Therefore, holistic-dynamic psychology furnishes social studies teaching philosophy with a psychological re-interpretation of the history of the species, as well as with a psychologically sound methodology. (Maslow, 1970, p. 269)

An implication of this discussion for the social studies teacher is the need for value-awareness. (Cf. Maslow, 1970, p. 6; and ASCD, 1962, pp. 152 and 201) The social studies teacher can become value-aware by asking himself such questions as: What is important to this child this moment, and how can I help him meet his need and interest? What does this textbook, study guide, curriculum design, state-mandated program, parent, colleague, or administrator, imply are the important, valuable criteria of pedagogy, and do I agree with their interpretations? What are my own values, personal and professional? These issues are discussed in a special issue of Social Education 39 (April, 1975) devoted to the issue of academic freedom. (See also Appendix D for other NCSS statements and publications on the problems being discussed both

in communities and in the schools regarding social and pedagogical values.)

### Examples of Holistic-Dynamic Values As Applied to Education

The following examples might be termed sub-criteria of Affective Criterion 7: Socialization, derived from the premises discussed above.

1. The valuing of the intrapsychic functioning and its interaction with external reality. (Maslow, 1971, p. 188)
2. The valuing of both cognitive and conative functioning. (Maslow, 1971, p. 210)
3. The valuing of both academic training and concrete experience in the classroom. (Whitehead as quoted in Maslow, 1970, p. 224)
4. The primary value of models of health rather than sickness in individuals, in psychological research, in teaching methods, and in curriculum construction. (Maslow, 1970, pp. 265-80)
5. The valuing of values themselves as needs without which human beings become sick. (Maslow, 1971, p. 194)
6. The valuing of expressive as well as coping behaviors in the classroom. (Maslow, 1970, pp. 131-48)
7. The value of problem-centering over means-centering in curricula. (Maslow, 1970, p. 11)
8. The valuing of the synergic functioning of the individual within his culture, with implications for new evaluations of this relationship. (Maslow, 1971, p. 199)

9. The value of specieshood, or feeling for mankind, as well as feeling for nationhood or race. (Maslow, 1971, p. 210)

## Affective Criterion 8: Holistic Functioning of the Personality

Holistic-Dynamic (Affective) Criterion 8 for a Hypothetical Teaching Model: To what extent does the model encourage holistic functioning of the entire personality?

Holistic functioning of the personality may be defined as the resolution in the psychologically healthy human being of the age-old dichotomies of mind and body, head and heart, reason and instinct, selfishness and unselfishness, concreteness and abstractness, activity and passivity, and all the other dichotomies and trichotomies mentioned by Maslow. (Maslow, 1970, pp. 178-9) For enlargement of this theme, CoEvolution Quarterly, Fall 1976, has initiated a philosophical dialogue on "Mind/Body Dualism" (pp. 56-68).

In the writer's view, this final holistic-dynamic criterion is the most important for a new psychopedagogy because of the traditional error of viewing the personality as hierarchical in functioning. "We have learned the difficulties and dangers of those ago-old rationalistic systems in which the capacities were thought to be arranged hierarchically, with rationality at the top." (Maslow in ASCD, 1962, p. 44)

Note that, whereas the human needs are hierarchical, i.e., prepotent in appearance--depending upon the gratification of the lower need before the next higher appears, the personality

itself functions non-hierarchically. To illustrate the difference, an example of hierarchical need is that of the hungry child, who does not do his lessons well. His physiological need demands satisfaction at that moment before his interest in other things revives. To illustrate holistic functioning of the personality, the psychologically healthy child, i.e., one whose basic needs were early and continuously gratified, will experience a more productive and enjoyable life, because his energies are not drained by dichotomies typical of neurotic, growth-blocked, deficiencies. Need gratification does not imply, however, that the child will not experience healthy frustration, tragic life experiences, or manageable challenges, as a part of the growth process. (Maslow, 1970, p. 87)

In summary, holistic-dynamic functioning of the personality includes: (1) the range of functions of the total human organism, i.e., the conative, cognitive, affective, and motor aspects; and (2) the integrated, holistic, non-dichotomous, or synergic, functioning of these aspects in the psychologically healthy human being. (ASCD, 1962, p. 44)

As will be seen in Chapters V through VII, the illustrative social studies teaching method relies upon a balanced expression of all aspects of human functioning through a sequence of integrated activities within an academic context, as recommended by Herman. (Herman, 1969, p. 219).

What is challenged in a student of this method is a

trust in the full functioning of the organism in its rational and non-rational, or intuitive, aspects. Such trust, or confidence in one's holistic functioning implies (1) acknowledging one's need and interest as legitimate, acceptable, and not socially incongruent; (2) trusting one's conative impulses to lead one to ever more realistic goals; (3) trusting one's ability to open himself to experiencing external reality, including the reality of other human beings; (4) trusting one's rational and non-rational, or primary and secondary, cognitive processes to select "from the multitude of possibilities, that behavior which in this moment of time will be most generally and genuinely satisfying"; and (5) trusting in one's capacity to correct one's actions if they prove to be less than satisfying. This analysis of holistic functioning is derived from Rogers' definition of the fully functioning person. (Rogers, 1969, pp. 282-8)

In order for such trust to develop, the child requires, among other influences, a continuous, organized experience in expression of all aspects of his personality in an environment of academic challenge. In concrete terms, it is just as important for the child to experience constructing a rigid frame with wood, hammer, and nails, or to experience interrelating with his peers in a rule-bound situation which he has helped to structure, as it is for him to learn the concept that the Chumash Indians were the first known settlers in his geographical area. What this may entail in the actual experience of the child involved in the integrated sequence of activities used in the

illustrative model, is, for example, a sensing of the bounds between the socially permissible and the prohibited; the sensing of both the strictures and the security of curricular structure; the exploration of the depths of his creativity, or inventiveness in the Piagetian sense; and above all the increasing reliance upon a holistic sensing of himself in his environment as a guide to his choices of academic tasks and personal relationships in the class.

Antecedent to self-trust in the child is self-trust in the teacher, which leads him to trust others, including his students, to be soundly and realistically social. (ASCD, 1962, p. 89) In addition to self-trust on the part of the teacher, an overall view is required of the function of public education within the culture, and his personal part in that culture. (ASCD, 1962, pp. 11-13) As the writer understands it, holistic-dynamic psychology emphasizes self-awareness, as well as increasing expression of one's total functioning. This psychology does not attempt to present any one formula for therapy or for education. The writer would paraphrase this aspect of self-trust in one's total functioning as zestful acceptance of his responsibility for his own sense of the situation and for the consequences of choosing his own sense of reality to guide his actions, and to correct his choices when necessary.

Finally, with regard to holistic functioning of the entire personality, while Maslow does not specify holistic functioning within the need hierarchy, the writer considers it as both a basic and a higher need, inasmuch as the structure of the need

hierarchy (Affective Criteria 1 through 7) depends upon the holistic functioning of the personality.

## Pre-conditions for Gratification Of Basic Needs and Higher Needs

According to Rogers, qualities which facilitate the "becoming" process in therapy are those which facilitate learning, i.e., genuineness, congruence, or realness in the teacher; prizing, or acceptance, of the child by the teacher; and empathic understanding of the child; and, in addition, the ability to communicate these qualities to the child. Further, teachers need to provide resources for, and rely upon, the self-actualizing need in students. (Rogers, 1961, pp. 282-90) Supportive research on these characteristics of a helping relationship is discussed in Rogers' Freedom to Learn (Rogers, 1969, pp. 115-26)

Teaching attitudes which facilitate self-concepts of dignity and worth are: open classrooms in which anything can be looked at and discussed; giving approval to the honest, sincere expression of others; understanding intentions and protecting participants; learning to disagree without being disagreeable; and developing purposeful direction with others in groups. (ASCD, 1962, pp. 225-30) The writer believes that the method used as an illustration for teaching social studies is in itself challenging to both teacher and students to exhibit the above-mentioned qualities.

## Summary of Affective Criteria In Relation to Pedagogical Objectives

The premise of this chapter is that the hierarchy of

of needs and the holistic functioning of the personality can be made the basis of affective educational criteria for the social studies, thereby meeting the basic pedagogical objectives of (1) motivation, (2) cognition, and (3) value formation, or citizenship. In the writer's view, the social studies teaching model discussed in Chapters V through VII illustrate a high degree of congruence of these pedagogical goals with the hypotheses of holistic-dynamic psychology.

In terms of the diagram (See p. 59 above), the holistic-dynamic (affective) criteria (Column I) are linked to the above-mentioned pedagogical objectives for the social studies (Column IV) through the motivational element of the need hierarchy, which Maslow describes as the intrinsic reinforcers upon which all sorts of incidental learnings can be constructed. In addition to motivating the total organism, gratification of the lower and higher needs also enhances self-actualization, which is a prerequisite for more efficient cognition, the second pedagogical objective mentioned above. Finally, the hierarchy of needs is the foundation of a system of human values and is itself a valuing process, thus fulfilling the third pedagogical objective. To illustrate the last component, Maslow states that self-actualizing people "are more completely individual than any group that has ever been described, and yet are also more completely socialized, more identified with humanity than any other group yet described. They are closer to <u>both</u> their specieshood and to their unique individuality." (Maslow, 1970, p. 178)

In summary, the gratification of the lower and higher needs and greater freedom for holistic functioning of the personality furnish psychologically sound motivation, cognition, and value formation in an academic process.

## The Relationship between What Is And What Ought to Be in Social Studies Curriculum

Thus far in Chapters III and IV, the writer has described ideal conditions for education by means of criteria for a hypothetical teaching model. In the following chapters, she will attempt to relate these ideal conditions to an actual classroom experience, to find some relationship between "what ought to be" good education with "what is", or at least was, the sum total of her experience with the illustrative model.

In the case of the pre-1970 Ventura County (California) social studies program, the writer believes that the teachers who constructed it were influenced by a common philosophical heritage, that of the Deweyan experiential approach, but also by an organismic valuing process developed through long experience in the classroom, which led them to develop the integrated activities method for teaching social studies. The writer has taken their work one step further by identifying it with specific psychologies whose practitioners are pedagogically oriented. The success of the method, and the writer's continuing interest have led her to an exploration of "what ought to be", based upon "what is", or was, this satisfying teaching experience. The writer believes there is a certain inevitability about this teaching method, such that it led her to the holistic

hypotheses. In Maslow's language, there is a certain "oughtiness", or inner requiredness, about the facts of this classroom experience (Maslow, 1971, p. 122), such that the writer was led to formulate the basic hypothesis of this paper that the more effective, or satisfying, the educational experience, the more holistic it tends to be, i.e., the more it will tend to meet the cognitive and affective criteria here delineated, and will tend, as well, to solve the basic pedagogical problems of motivation, cognition, and value formation.

Furthermore, the writer invites discussion of her secondary thesis hypothesized in Chapter II above, that the cognitive and affective criteria have an affinity for one another, such that it ought to be possible to formulate a general psychology of cognition and affect, which would be of assistance to educators, and to teachers in particular, in developing their own theory and practice.

The writer wishes to make it understood that a specialist schooled in psychological theory would undoubtedly arrive at more accurate definitions of the basic premises of Piaget, Maslow, and Rogers; but that, as a teacher, she believes it to be her right and responsibility to understand and attempt to apply in the classroom the new developments in psychology, relating them to the basic problems of pedagogy mentioned above.

Chapter V is a step-by-step description of the sequential integrated activities method of teaching social studies in fourth grade. Chapters VI and VII, in differing ways, apply the six cognitive and eight affective criteria to this method.

# CHAPTER V

# THE ILLUSTRATIVE MODEL: A CHRONOLOGY OF AN ELEMENTARY SOCIAL STUDIES UNIT USING A SEQUENCE OF INTEGRATED ACTIVITIES

## Introduction

This description and the following chapters are intended to be read in conjunction with an excerpt from the 1962 Ventura County (California) social studies guide series, this one entitled Early California, included herein as Appendix B. The County Guide, or Appendix B, as it shall be referred to hereinafter, provides the teacher with detailed suggestions as to subject matter and method for teaching the unit on Early California, and also with a bibliography of textbooks, children's literature, and audio-visual media available on order from the Ventura County Schools Library and the Audio-Visual Department of the Ventura County Schools Office, most of which is still available.

In addition to the County Guide, a more specific detailing of the sequential integrated activities method is to be found in Helen P. Doolin's "Social Studies Techniques", copyright 1969, which this chapter closely parallels, in the form of a recollection of the writer's use of Doolin's guide in the classroom for two years, each year comprising six historical units. The writer used the Doolin method under her personal tutelage in the 1968-1969 California Lutheran College Intern

Program for teachers; and Ms. Doolin has read and approved the writer's recollective description of her method. (See App. C.) Doolin's guide, "Social Studies Techniques", is available from the Ventura County Library.

Whereas this chapter is a chronological description of the first ten days of the sequential integrated activities method, Chapter VI analyzes the method in terms of its exemplification of the theories set forth in Chapters II, III, and IV. Chapter VII then synthesizes theory and method in a selective narration of the writer's actual experience of the method in the classroom.

## Goals and Concepts

The reader is referred to the introduction to the Early California guide for a list of general purposes or goals for the integrated study method. (App. B, pref. ii) Following the general purposes is a list of specific purposes for the Early California unit, including the formation of two general concepts: a knowledge of a specific primitive lifestyle pre-existing in the child's own geographic area, and a comparison of that primitive lifestyle with his own. (App. B, pref. iii)

## The Chronology

First Day: Pre-arrange an environment using exhibits, books, and pictures ordered from the Ventura County Schools Library and the Ventura County Audio-Visual Department. (See App. B, pp. 1, 2, 11-13.) Invite the children to look at the posters, photographs, and illustrations, and to handle the artifacts. Elicit questions about the things the children have

seen, touched, and experimented with. Read an easily dramatizable story to the class, such as Docas, Indian of Santa Clara (G. S. Snedden [New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1927]), Chumash Boy (John Rambeau, N. and R. E. Gross [San Francisco: Field Publications, Inc., 1968]). Encourage the children to act out the story, asking for several interpretations by different children in order to accustom them to dramatic representation. Discuss the play and ways in which it could be improved with scenery and use of the exhibits, such as the mortar and pestle, baskets, etc., or with student-made objects. Suggest dramatizing a day in the life of a California (or Chumash) Indian. Develop a list of questions suggested in the County Guide (App. B, p. 3), making notes on the chalkboard from the children's answers. Subsume four or five general areas such as food, clothing, shelter, games and ceremonies, tools and weapons, hunting, food gathering, etc., and list them on the chalkboard. Suggest working together in groups--introducing the idea of committees very simply--to find out about, or "research", these topics and make things for a better play. (See App. B, p. 7.) Distribute slips of paper and ask the children to choose one of the general areas listed on the chalkboard, at the same time introducing the concept of "topic" as a general area of interest. Ask them to make first, second, and third choices, and from these choices the teacher constitutes the committees, usually comprising five or six children each.

Second Day: Summarize the first day's work and have committee meetings, inviting the children to locate themselves

about the room in groups. Discuss beforehand what the children will be doing in committee. Elicit suggestions such as the following: We will talk about, or "discuss", how to make our house, or how to hunt, or how to gather and prepare food, etc. We will learn how the Indians did these things by looking at the pictures and exhibits more closely, and by looking at some books. The teacher may wish to have the chairs and tables set up for committee meetings in advance, with a distribution of multi-texts and library books at each circle. (App. B, p. 11) After about 15 minutes of committee meeting, reconvene the class and evaluate the experience. Ask the class to set standards for committee meetings, keeping them simple and brief. The children will naturally ask the meaning of the term "standards". Examples of class-derived standards are:

1. Let one person at a time to the talking.
2. Let every person speak, and everyone should take part, or "participate".
3. Choose a committee leader if needed.
4. Make a plan and stick to it.
5. Discuss with the class the problems you have in sticking to your plan. Discuss making changes in plans.

From this beginner's guide to committee work, standards of democratic procedure are eventually refined and printed on a large chart for frequent class review. These brief review periods of ways in which committee work gets done are the scene of lively discussion, as the children reflect on various methods from authoritarianism to anarchy, without, of course, using

these labels. Key words such as "discuss", "participate", "democratic procedure", and other tools of the classroom can be analyzed further in reading and vocabulary lessons, without breaking the momentum of the social studies sequence of activities. Introducing the etymology of these words in a language arts lesson teaches several arts, such as spelling, history, reference technique, and vocabulary building, all within the context of the child's activity for which the word is an "interiorization".

Third Day: Conduct a lesson in research to the assembled class. Multi-texts have been pre-arranged in three areas, according to readability. Reserve one area for pictures with captions. Make an oversized note card on the chalkboard, or have several oversized reproductions of the note card on charts for illustrative purposes. Give each child a dittoed note card like the one on the board, and have the class choose a topic to research, drawn from the questions developed the previous day. Each child will have one of the multi-texts or captioned pictures at his desk. Based on suggestions from the children's perusal of their books, the teachers makes notes on the large note card. Some children may wish to copy one of the illustrative samples on their own note cards. After an interval of independent search for pertinent facts in their books, begin to discuss ways of finding information fast, such as looking at the pictures, headings of chapters and sub-sections, indexes, and tables of contents. Introduce the technique of phrasing, illustrating on the enlarged note card examples of phrases of four or five words per line, using one or several phrases

per card. Introduce the technique of skimming the text itself. Keep the first discussions about research techniques brief and simple. These basic concepts of research, or reading for a purpose, are frequently reviewed and amplified in separate reading lessons. The presence of a reading specialist in the early research lessons would be most helpful, so that all children, including, but not limited to, poor readers, can be assisted to learn reading for a purpose.

At this first research lesson discuss the use of the note forms in committee work for help in making scenery and properties for their dramatization of a day in the life of a Chumash Indian. The need for accuracy in the gestures of the actors and in the making of the clothing, tools, scenery, etc., is the reason for reading the books and studying photographs, illustrations, and the media.

The children then do a few minutes of individual note taking on their respective topics, so that they may have some information for their construction for the next day. Reconvene and read aloud some of the notes, if the children wish. The notes may be kept in a common file, to be referred to in construction periods. A check of the note file by the teacher will indicate those who are pursuing this learning well, as well as those who have not made use of it. Encourage the children to copy illustrations from books, pictures, and photographs on the reverse sides of their note cards. This will encourage the slow readers and non-readers. Further comments about research periods are made in the description of the seventh day.

Subject: Chumash houses
Title: California
Author: Grace S. Dawson*
Name: Pupil's name Pages: 12-16
Facts: willow poles in circles
smoke hole in top center
tule reed mats for covering
large enough for several families
mats divide house into rooms
pitch from hillside for rainproofing
mats for bedding on platforms

* (G. S. Dawson, California: The Story of Our Southwest Corner [New York: The MacMillan Company, 1957])

The term "research" should also be developed in the teaching of science, when classroom experiments are conducted. Identifications can be made between the natural and social sciences. Research should also include, if possible, a field trip to the nearby hills for identification of flora and fauna, geography and geology, etc., which influenced Indian life, on the very sites on which the present school and houses stand.

Instruct the children in the selective use of multi-texts as listed in the County Guide (App. B, p. 1); and in addition, make use of the Ventura County Schools Library's excellent stock of historical books for children and adults. The writer also ordered early editions from the Pasadena Public Library's extensive collection of Californiana for later units

of historical study. Teacher's and children's bibliography for the unit, as well as a guide to County-supplied audio-visual materials, including films, filmstrips, slides, realia, pictures, photographs, and cassette tapes are listed in the third column of the County Guide and on pp. 1, 2, 11-13 of the Guide.

The International Reading Association publication Perspectives in Reading, No. 12, entitled "A New Look at Reading in the Social Studies" (Newark, Delaware: IRA, 1969), has been a help to the writer in understanding the difficult problem of teaching social studies with available textbooks and reference books such as encyclopedias.

Fourth Day: Usually by the fourth day, teacher and students have gathered materials from outside the classroom for their use in the construction of scenery and properties, in accordance with informal plans on all sides. In addition, the County Guide provides ample suggestions and some materials for providing industrial arts experiences (App. B, pref. iii), such as the making of vegetable dyes (App. B, p. 5), preparation of acorn mush (App. B, p. 6); making of wickiup (App. B, p. 7), etc. The house can be made of bamboo for framing, or whatever natural material is locally available. Acorns or substitutes are found for the meal used in baking; cloth is brought from home, and beads or other ornaments for wear.

Before the committee meeting for construction begins, briefly review committee standards through use of the term "democratic procedure", as printed on a large chart visible from all parts of the room. Have the class discuss some of the

things they plan to do in committee. Keep it brief. Ask committees to choose a reporter who can summarize the committee work for that day. Set a time limit and signal for cleanup and return to whole-group set-up for evaluation.

When the class is reconvened, hear summaries from reporters and others; review the committee process as it did or did not live up to standards; and review the need for more information about what the children want to build or make, and the need for more research. The general and specific purposes listed in the County Guide (App. B, pref. ii, iii, and p. 1), are helpful to the teacher in getting ideas on how to guide discussions when the class is evaluating its own work.

At this time begin a discussion of standards of construction. (Cf. Doolin, "Social Studies Techniques", 1969, pp. 11-12.)

1. Ask for help in using tools, when necessary.
2. Take turns in using tools and be fair in distribution of materials.
3. Replace tools and materials when work is finished.
4. Clean up your work space.
5. Work as quietly as possible.
6. Use notes for accuracy.

Directed lessons can be given in a separate period on the use of saw, hammer, needle and thread, painting with two or more colors, etc. Discussing the need for quiet work is an opportunity to discuss the need for being aware of the needs of others.

Fifth Day: Encourage the children individually, in pairs, or in groups, or by committee, to re-enact a scene they have read about in their research, or a story the teacher has read to them in a quiet period at the end of the day; or base the dramatization on a scenario from a film or filmstrip or photograph. Use a class-made chart (App. B, p. 6) for reference in dramatizing ways of obtaining food. The songs and dances in the County Guide, but not included in Appendix B, are authentic and simple enough for fourth graders, and are an inspiration for improvising while retaining some authenticity. Such dances and songs and use of instruments such as the bamboo flute can be taught in the music period of the day, thus further integrating the school day.

Evaluate the drama and set standards for dramatic representation. Some examples the class may volunteer are:

1. Be serious. (Use this opportunity to equate dramatic representation with historical research.)
2. Be accurate. Use your notes for accuracy in the play and in construction.
3. Speak clearly so that all may hear.
4. Use clear gestures, etc.

As the social studies units succeed one another, the children take pleasure in dramatic representation of Rancho Days, The Gold Rush, Statehood, etc., because of California's varied and colorful history. Their early efforts at dramatization should be appreciated by the teacher, and "good things" stressed in the children's critiqueing of each other's

performances. Criticism should take the form of "things we can improve upon next time". The teacher may make notes on the board about topics the committees need to research in the next research period, based on their own evaluations.

Sixth Day: As the basic sequence of dramatization/ research/committee work/construction/culmination in dramatization, is repeated through successive units, the teacher can then give occasional directed lessons in the traditional social studies skills, such as the use of maps, globes, and charts, also using filmstrips, motion pictures, books, photographs, etc., listed throughout the County Guide. Allow time for review discussion and note-taking after a directed lesson for the purposes of feedback of children's grasp of the technique and for reinforcement of the learning.

Seventh Day: Review the note-taking procedure with another oversized blank note card, enlarging the lesson to include parts of a textbook and locations of the various parts, and also the method of scanning the book by using pictures as keys to the text, headings and subheadings as keys to the text. Review the technique of skimming paragraphs. Review the technique of making notes with brief phrases and the difference of phrases from complete sentences. Elicit phrasings from the children, using sentences they have selected from their textbooks. Phrasing can also be practiced in language arts period.

Poor readers can work with advanced readers; individually they can draw diagrams they have taken from illustrations, for reference in making scenery and properties, using the backs of

their note cards. Sources of information for poor readers may be teacher write-downs, book illustrations, filmstrips, posters, serial photographs of authentic California Indians re-enacting their own ancient ways, and other materials from the Audio-Visual Department of the County Schools Office. Keep notes in individual folders or in a common file available to all. Check periodically to see that a minimum number of notes is being made by each child. The school librarian may wish to give a lesson on the library card file so that the children can see similarities and differences.

Eighth Day: Committee work and construction. Review standards. Set standards for cleanup.

Ninth or Tenth Day: Culmination: a sequenced dramatic representation of a day in the life of a Chumash Indian. See general remarks in Chapter VI on the value of closure. or Bruner's "climax of understanding", in a final aesthetic act of the entire class. Depending upon the chemistry of class-and-teacher, the culminations of later units may be presented to other classes, to parents, or filmed on closed-circuit television. This electronic aid is, in the writer's opinion, an excellent teaching device in dramatic representation, as well as a device for evaluation of other phases of the sequence.

Toward the end of the unit, which lasts, in this case for two and a half or three weeks, invite a philosophical discussion on the differences between the Indian way of life and that of their own lifestyle. The question is asked, after some comparisons have been made, "Which kind of life do you

prefer?" This leads to a normative consideration of formal schooling, reading, scheduling, structure and ritual, eating, scarcity, climate and its influence on culture, danger and safety, natural resources and how they are used, etc., all within a context of personal meaning because of the element of comparison with their own lives.

Summary of the Sequence of Integrated Activities

1. Class dramatization of a story read by the teacher, followed by small-group dramatic representation of parts of the story, using realia, or properties, ordered from the County Audio-Visual Department.
2. Committee meetings, with membership selection according to interest in phases of the lifestyle of the Indian.
3. Reading for research, which is taught in a directed lesson, including multi-text use, reference book use, skimming, cuing, note-taking in phrases, use of notes as source material for the other phases of the sequence, etc.
4. Construction of scenery and properties in committee, individually, in pairs or trios, making use of student notes, as guided by a general plan formulated in committee, and by a general time schedule formulated by the class according to the limits set by the sequencing of the other historical units.
5. Culmination in dramatic representation of a day in the life of a Chumash Indian. With repeated experience with the method, children become confident enough to invite audiences of children from other classes, or the principal, or their parents.

6. Inquiry and conceptualization in the form of a discussion of the comparisons between the child's lifestyle and the lifestyle he has been studying.

## Sequencing of the Indian Unit In the Early California Series For Fourth-Grade Social Studies

The Early California unit initiated a series of units on California history for fourth-grade children, as described in Appendix B Table of Contents and pref. iv of that work. This series of units constituted a preface to the fifth-grade study of the settlement of the United States.

The signal for the introduction of the next unit is the appearance in the room of new realia, posters, and other materials from the Audio-Visual Department, suggesting the succeeding historical period. The teacher may wish to link the succeeding unit by eliciting questions about the causes for the transition from a primitive lifestyle to the Spanish Mission lifestyle of the California Indian.

# CHAPTER VI

# AN ANALYSIS OF THE ILLUSTRATIVE MODEL FROM THE STANDPOINT OF COGNITIVE AND AFFECTIVE FUNCTIONS

## Introduction

As a preface to this analysis, the "six natural urges to learning" are listed as they appear in the introduction to the Ventura County, California, social studies guide for teachers entitled Early California, which includes three social studies units for fourth graders.

1. The drive to be physically active
2. The desire to manipulate and construct
3. The urge to satisfy curiosity
4. The desire to share and communicate
5. The urge to re-create life through dramatic activity
6. The desire to express ideas and feelings aesthetically

(App. B, p. 1)

The County Guide then gives specific suggestions for exploiting these natural urges to learning through a sequence of integrated activities, as described in Chapter V. Chapter VI is an attempt to analyze the method from the standpoint of the faculties, or cognitive and affective functions, the child is challenged to exercise in the sequential activities. The narrative of Chapter VII will provide exemplification of the fundamental premises of Piaget, Maslow, and Rogers in the writer's classroom experience in teaching with this particular method.

In attempting the analysis of the functions of a whole

person in relation to cognitive and affective aspects of their activities in the program, problems of definition present themselves requiring analysis of psychologists and educators. For example, is the act of imagination a cognitive one, an affective one, or both? What changes will be made in the definitions of the terms "cognition" and "affect" as the result of new knowledge in neuropsychology and brain research? In this connection, will educators discover, as psychologists are discovering, that there is no irreducible datum of the psyche unless that be the whole person himself? (Maslow, 1970, p. 295) In light of these questions, the act of imagination might necessarily partake of one or all of the fourteen cognitive and affective criteria defined in Chapters III and IV, according to the manner in which imagination is challenged by the sequential integrated activities method. For purposes of this chapter, it will be assumed that all activities or functions partake to some degree of both cognitive and affective aspects, as challenged by the various sequences in the program.

## Analysis of Cognitive And Affective Functions In the Method

The various activities of the child in their cognitive and affective functioning will be described within the framework of the sequential integrated activities method as outlined in Chapter V.

### The Drama

The first set of activities surrounds the drama. In the initial dramatization there are several steps in the process:

The teacher begins the hour by reading the story of Docas, Indian of Santa Clara, or Chumash Boy, while the students listen and imagine. The quality of attention depends upon the appeal of the story, the challenge of possible dramatization, and the amount of free-floating attention available to the child. (Maslow, 1970, p. 207)

Following the reading, the children represent in the drama a persona from the story, calling on the simultaneous functioning of memory, empathy, imagination, visualization, improvisation, and vocal and bodily expression, all of which are evoked spontaneously because of the semiotic, or imitative, function native to children, as identified by Piaget. These functions partake of both cognitive and affective aspects in a mind/body fusion of energies. The drama, above all the other activities, challenges trust in one's spontaneous functioning, including impulses beyond or below awareness.

Following the dramatization the children are asked to evaluate it both positively and negatively, first considering "things that were well done" and then "things that could be improved". The teacher may stimulate comments by noting an instance of good dramatization such as, "Mary really looked like she was washing clothes on a stone by the river." Evaluation, or critical thinking, is characterized by a mental interiorization of the activity in an equilibrative mode. In Piagetian terms, what the children have done is to assimilate, or incorporate, a new event--their dramatic interpretation of a historical persona--into a pre-existing cognitive structure,

in this case the idea of what dramatic representation, or play acting, might be. It appears to the writer to be a kind of in-breathing of new experience which requires, demands, a change of mind. Indeed, the children are at one and the same time accommodating, or transforming, this pre-existing idea in response to the environment, i.e., changing their idea, their cognitive structure of the act of the drama. This interpretation of the equilibrative nature of intelligence is based on the definition of intellectual growth on p. 36 of Chapter III. Furthermore, not only is their idea of drama changed, refined, sophisticated, but also, and no less importantly, their idea of what their own minds and bodies can do, as well as their idea of the reality of primitive life, and, indeed, something of the meaning of history itself.

The children then set rudimentary standards for performance, requiring evocation of both feelings and judgments. The fourth-grade child as drama critic is given the opportunity for making judgments which are beyond mere categorizing, labeling, and stereotyping, arising as these judgments do, from within the problem of the drama as historical representation.

Following evaluation and standard setting, the children deduce from the story, and induce from their own experience the kinds of activities that might be presented dramatically in a play about California Indians. They reflect upon the kinds of properties, including scenery, costumes, and artifacts, which would be required for a fuller dramatic representation. A cognitive effort, a linear analysis, is therefore put into the

service of an aesthetic act, the drama as a simultaneous experience in the sense that it challenges the several functions noted above.

Finally, each person reflects upon his choice of activity around which to work, i.e., the constructing of shelter and scenery, the making of clothing, the gathering and preparation of edible plant foods, hunting, fishing, ceremonies and games, etc. He also reflects upon the kinds of activities he wishes to represent dramatically. The choosing of an activity as a basis for committee and construction work involves the possibility of conflict when one's original choice cannot be met due to the exigencies of balancing numbers in committee membership. Sometimes a student may argue for his choice. This involves negotiation with the teacher, or with his peers. Such resolution of conflicts is an exercise in the Piagetian imperative of self-regulation in response to the environment. The child is not required to capitulate to the environment, but to negotiate with it, and to balance his own interest with the group interest, and with the end product, the dramatic culmination. Further comments on the drama relating especially to intrapsychic activity are included in the section on Culmination.

Committee Work

The second set of activities surrounds committee work. The children share in committee the materials distributed, such as books and pictures. Information storage for purposes of personal use is the chief function here.

Examination of materials is followed by committee

discussion and consensus regarding possible ways to construct scenery and properties, and how to enact parts of the play relating to their construction. Interpersonal relating is added to the cognitive processes of information storage and use. Interpersonal relating is a complicated balancing of cognitive and affective functions in the context of (a) doing a piece of work, and (b) doing the work in a group. One has to take into account not only one's own ideas, but those of others, in order to arrive at a common novel product. In successive committee meetings there is informal sharing of materials and ideas gained through independent research, including discussion and choices as to uses of materials and information. Reciprocity is tested in the crucible of creative activity.

The committee attempts to follow democratic procedures, usually round-robin voicing of opinions, selection of chairman, and use of these structures for evaluation of individual work and its place in the committee effort. The essential process is the self-learning of the need for structure for the purpose of integrating the feelings and judgments of all members in pursuit of a common goal.

The committee then discusses and draws up a plan for construction of properties or scenery. This may include individual task assignments. Making of joint plans involves a high level of cognitive ability and interpersonal relating. Bloom places this activity at Level 5.20 in a range of six levels of intellectual sophistication. (Benjamin S. Bloom, Taxonomy of Education Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain [New York:

David McKay Company, Inc., 1956], pp. 170-1) That the children are able to work together as well as they do testifies to some innate urge to share and communicate, but, as Piaget points out, by means of syncretic fusion requiring repeated trial and error, rather than by means of a linear, mathematico-logical method of arriving at solutions.

In summary, the children are cognitively and affectively challenged to several actions: (1) information retrieval for a self-chosen purpose; (2) reflection upon the story, upon its dramatization, and upon the materials and skills required for properties for the play; (3) discussion as to the relative value of several proposed plans of action; (4) individual choice as to one's part in the committee's work, involving consultation of one's feelings and assumptions; (5) consensus, including a recycling of steps (1) through (4), and an eventual resolution of a plan, occasionally with assistance from teacher or aide, as requested by the committee, or an individual in the committee.

The committee chooses a spokesman to report to whole-class conferences on accomplishments and problems. Reporting and chairing involve thinking in evaluative terms about the whole committee effort. Roles of leadership are rotated, according to the wish and need of the particular committee. These whole-class conferences are feedback periods for review of things accomplished and for problem solving in areas of construction, use of materials, availability of materials, resource needs, interpersonal conflicts, etc. The class makes decisions as to what materials are needed from the school stores

and lists these for the teacher. Suggestions are made as to materials which can be brought from outside the classroom. Finally, problems brought to the whole-class conference are discussed, first with reference to whether they could better be solved by the individual committees. The whole class is also informed of progress of various committees, and also of time deadlines set by requirements of scheduling the ordering of materials and the coverage of historical units within the time frame of the school year. Time allotment is an important skill learned at this age, because the concept of time has been made relevant to personal need and interest.

It should be noted that within the committee structure children often work in pairs or trios, but sometimes alone. The relative advantages of solitary or shared work are explored in relative safety. Choice of partners is a trial-and-error function, like the work itself.

The foregoing committee functions refer to "the skill in the use of techniques of democratic living and the desire to live democratically" referred to in the County Guide (App. B, pref. ii). Especially appropriate to the above-described committee processes are Piaget's remarks about the struggles between nations and their parallel in classroom life. He says, in effect, that a lived-in experience of reciprocity in the classroom is required for the building of understanding of reciprocity among nations. (Piaget, 1973a, pp. 140-41)

## Research

The third set of activities surrounds research, both

in reading and in the field. The children recall the story and how it was dramatized. They reflect upon the needs for materials for properties for a full-scale dramatic representation. These reflections are coordinated with their reading. That is, they read for a purpose, which is to find out what they need to know for the purpose of constructing realia and also for the re-enactment of a historical period. In Piagetian terms, reading for a purpose has been stimulated by previous interiorizations of plans of action regarding the dramatization and committee work, specifically with regard to one's part in it. Now the children superimpose another mode of activity, another round of interiorizations of plans of actions, i.e., the technique of reading for research, upon the first two basic phases of the sequence of integrated activities.

The directed research lesson calls for the following activities: (1) attention and reception of information, i.e., listening to the teacher's directions on how to read for a purpose and take notes; (2) reading for the purpose of giving the teacher information for a sample over-sized note card on a class-selected subject; (3) participation by volunteers attempting to condense information into brief phrases for the sample note card; (4) individual practice in reading for a purpose and filling out their own note cards, or copying the teacher's sample; (5) discovery by the whole class of ways of quickly finding information in books by skimming, cluing, and other means described in Chapter V; and (6) practice in constructing phrases, thus discovering the structure of sentences and their

difference from phrases. Both imitation (the semiotic function) and invention (self-initiated work) alternate in the learning of this complex task. Several whole-class reviews of directed research lessons are required, each one being a process of discovery of the entire process at a more detailed level, in accordance with individual capacity to absorb the learning.

For low-group readers, captioned pictures and photographs, as well as illustrations in multi-texts and reference books such as encyclopedias, are provided, and they are encouraged to draw diagrams on their note cards, copying the title of the book and the pages on the card as well. Regardless of reading ability, what is required as a result of book research is the high-level transfer of abstractions to a real-life situation, i.e., the transformation of printed information about Chumash houses, for example, into information about how to reconstruct such a house using contemporary materials to simulate the original.

In addition to reading research, the children do concrete research in museums, and on hillsides above the school, in gullies, and on the agricultural plain. They examine flora and fauna, collect specimens, and speculate on their uses. An example of a primitive commodity is the yucca, a flowering plant of many uses for the Indian, which blooms in late spring, and which was available on the neighboring hillside wilderness. The intention of this kind of research is twofold: the gathering of information, and the expanding of the classroom beyond the school walls. Furthermore, identification with nature encourages de-centering of the ego in still another mode.

Another part of expanding the classroom beyond the school walls was the introduction of guest speakers to the class, who might answer their questions on the subject matter they are studying. The intent is to connect learning with life outside the school experience. An example of this expansion of learning beyond school walls was the short-term apprenticing of nine- and ten-year-old boys to trade workers at a nearby naval base in the early 1970's. According to newspaper reports, this experiment was a highly successful learning experience for both children and adults.

## Construction

The fourth set of activities surrounds the construction of realia. The children reflect individually and discuss in committee the requirements of the drama, and the construction to be undertaken by the committee. This involves decisions as to division of labor, but these decisions are usually made syncretically, that is, by trial and error, until the children learn the tyranny of structurelessness. The children examine tools and materials, and experiment with these. They receive formal instruction in the use of tools, either from an aide or in the whole-class setup. The children here learn, as in the other phases of activity, to observe and then to experiment, the two functions which are the basis of operativity. They begin to learn the limitations of their skills, their tools, and the materials, and the relations between these variables. Unconsciously they are cognitively structuring at successively higher levels, in this case through a manual mode, but within

an even larger structure, the entire class production of a dramatic representation of a historical era. The momentum thus gained through operating within structures of the whole carries the children through many frustrations in their eagerness to finish their project.

Following the construction activity proper, the children evaluate their work. Standards are set, as in all phases of the sequence of activities. Plans for completion are made, and are progressively modified, scrapped, or enlarged. Abandonment of plans is entertained after alternatives are exhausted. Failure is viewed as instructive, in accordance with scientific technique. At this point advance planning regarding material needs and time limitations is essential. Thus contingency planning, an anticipatory activity, is developed as a skill. Piaget notes that equilibrations are not static, but anticipatory.

Consultation and interchange of ideas and experiences with one's committee and with the whole class is found to be essential, although some children learn only through omitting this requisite that they have not done their work in accordance with the overall plan. Unsolved problems of individuals and of committees are defined, decisions are made as to the level at which these problems should be solved, whether individually, in committee, or in the whole group. As with most activities children solve construction problems through trial and error, and therefore waste time and materials. Piaget states that the freedom to experiment is the prerequisite for cognitive structuration, and that time and material wasting is essential to

the process. As in most schools materials such as paint, paper, cord, tools, etc., are in limited supply, the children eventually learn to economize through sheer necessity. However, the intellectual tool, the coordination of plans of actions, rather than the product, is the object of the experience.

The conclusion of each day's construction activity is cleanup, and establishment of this routine and its standards. The principle of accepting responsibility for the consequences of one's actions underlies the cleanup period. Trial and error is the core of cleanup, because time is lost in searching for materials and tools not replaced in the previous construction session.

Culmination

The final phase of the integrated activities method is the culmination, a final dramatic representation of a day in the life of a California Indian, involving a synthesis of all previous activities, and is therefore the most integrative activity. The drama is the chief means of bringing into the child's awareness his own intrapsychic reality. Drama is an act of the imagination employing the highest cognitive and affective levels, including, memory, analysis, synthesis, imagination, empathy, feeling, and ultimate personification in gesture, body stance, and facial expression, as well as words.

The element of play, the essence of experiment, is also the essence of the drama. Anything can be real for the moment. From the boisterous action of an Indian ambush to the seriousness and accuracy of the Japanese tea ceremony, this method

emphasizes play, the experimental mode defined by Claparède in Chapter III.

Drama is, in addition to being playful, an imitative mode, and, as such, is one of the natural urges to learning listed in the County Guide. The entering fourth-grade child may feel awkward in dramatization, but he finds that he knows how to do it, even though he did not know that he knew this skill. As a part of imitation, the child for the moment sets aside his store of images about his own lifestyle, and transports himself to another time and place. Imitation is potentially transmutable into empathy, an attribute of adult, mature, self-actualizing people. Through the drama, therefore, the child changes himself, enlarges his store of personal meanings. However, the discovery of empathy through the drama is a self-learning, because there is no direct character instruction. Character instruction, is, in all activities of the sequence, learned by doing rather than by precept.

Values of the Drama

As cited by Kenworthy (Leonard S. Kenworthy, Social Studies for the Seventies in Elementary and Middle Schools, 2nd ed. [New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1973], pp. 92-94), the educational values of dramatic play are: realistic reproductions, new ideas, heightened sensitivity, dramatic skill, application of information gained in research, air of reality lent to reading, identification of past with present, raising of questions for solution, release of feelings, initiative and creativity, group morale and cooperation, revelation of feelings,

development of self-image, therapeutic values, and teacher evaluation of attitudes, skills, and knowledge in behavioral situations.

In addition, Bruner cites the need for a "climax of understanding" following the learning episodes of acquisition of information, transformation, and evaluation. (Bruner, 1960, p. 49)

## Inquiry and Conceptualization

The culmination is followed, or immediately preceded by, a discussion of the comparison of the primitive lifestyle with one's own, and the question posed as to which lifestyle one prefers, or what aspects of each one prefers, and possible reasons for choices. This discussion is kept brief and simple, in accordance with the limitations to abstract thought as productive of broad, general conceptualizations, limitations which are still largely characteristic of this age group. This is not to say that concepts, which might be equated with cognitive structures, or general coordinations of plans of action, are not continuously being formed by the child in the sequence of integrated activities, but that these concepts arise from the child's activity in this particular academic context. Through concrete activity, the child learns to develop the tool of cognitive structuration at successively higher levels, and this is the object of education, rather than inculcation of concepts unrelated to concrete activity of immediate interest to the child.

## The Method in Relation to The Taxonomy of Educational Objectives

On the surface it seems paradoxical that the children are able to autonomously attain to many of the cognitive taxonomical levels as noted in Bloom. However, their way of attaining these levels is, as previously noted, a process of syncretic fusion, or transduction, rather than logico-mathematical deduction and induction. This is what Piaget maintains is difficult for adults to understand.

In relation to the taxonomy of affective objectives (David R. Krathwohl, B. S. Bloom, and B. B. Masia, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook II, Affective Domain [New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1964] ), the writer feels that these objectives tend toward a process of conceptualized values, whereas the illustrative model encourages the Rogerian organismic, or operative, valuing process, in addition to conceptualized valuing. Specifically, the model encourages values clarification through (1) immediate, continuous, personal experiencing of the environment through sensing and selecting from that environment that which tends to satisfy the need of the moment in the process; and (2) self-evaluation of each activity and the setting of standards, which are a process of conceptualizing of values--but values as related to the concrete activity and the need of the individual and the group.

# CHAPTER VII

# "COGNITIVE" AND "AFFECTIVE" CRITERIA AS THEY RELATE TO THE WRITER'S CLASSROOM EXPERIENCE WITH THE ILLUSTRATIVE MODEL

## Introduction

The intention of this chapter is to illustrate the writer's thesis that the best social studies teaching methods are holistic, i.e., cognitively and affectively integrated. This chapter is presented as proof of this thesis, but of a less quantifiable sort than would be possible under the rigors of a more fully developed general psychology of cognition and affect. Because this analysis is ex post facto, it was not possible to set up before-and-after test measurement in specified abilities. One of the problems raised by the cognitive and affective criteria presented as part of this thesis is achievement measurement of such intangibles as increased feelings of security, belongingness, or esteem, increased self-actualization, creativity and peak experiences, or holistic socialization. However, Rogers contends that psychosocial development can be made measurable in scientific terms, and the writer sees no bar to such measurements. (Rogers, 1961, pp. 215-24). An example of measurement of one of the criteria, autonomy, by Krimerman (See p. 18), is an encouraging step in the direction of joining humanistic psychology with the

scientific method. In the writer's view, the benefits of several years' experience in such active methods as this one would develop in its students higher levels of development of intelligence and personality measured in terms of the growing person's ability to place himself on good terms with reality--with himself in the first place, and with his peers and his experiences in the home and community as well as at school. He would find his life increasingly richer in intellectual content and in interpersonal relationships. This is a long-term expectation for which new philosophies, new standards, and new kinds of measurement of achievement are required both of educators and society generally.

The Piagetian criteria present several major practical problems for curriculum designers, including teachers, such as: How does the teacher structure active methods, those which lead thought naturally from one problem to the next, in a milieu of the child's own need and interest, while at the same time respecting the requirements of the various educational bodies such as those expressed in the recently adopted Social Sciences Education Framework for California Public Schools? How much structure in social studies method is enough, or too much? How much attention to the spontaneous need and interest of the child is enough, or too much? How much autonomy, or peer reciprocity is enough, or too much? The evidence of research into the literature surveyed in Chapter I indicates that there is some inclination to posit these questions as the basis of experimental research in social studies curriculum

development. The writer would add the suggestion presented in Chapter IV that a phenomenological approach to social studies research is a needed complement to research proceeding from theoretical premises.

The anecdotal narrative which follows represents an example of how a phenomenological approach, i.e., analysis of an already existing social studies program or method, can provide material for theoretical development such as the writer attempted in earlier chapters, and can, at the same time, stimulate examination of the validity of these theories and the possibilities for their expanded application in the classroom. In the following text each of the fourteen criteria are exemplified by actual classroom experiences, each criterion being preceded by a general statement as to the relevance of the experience to the criterion.

## Diagram of the Structure Of the Chapter

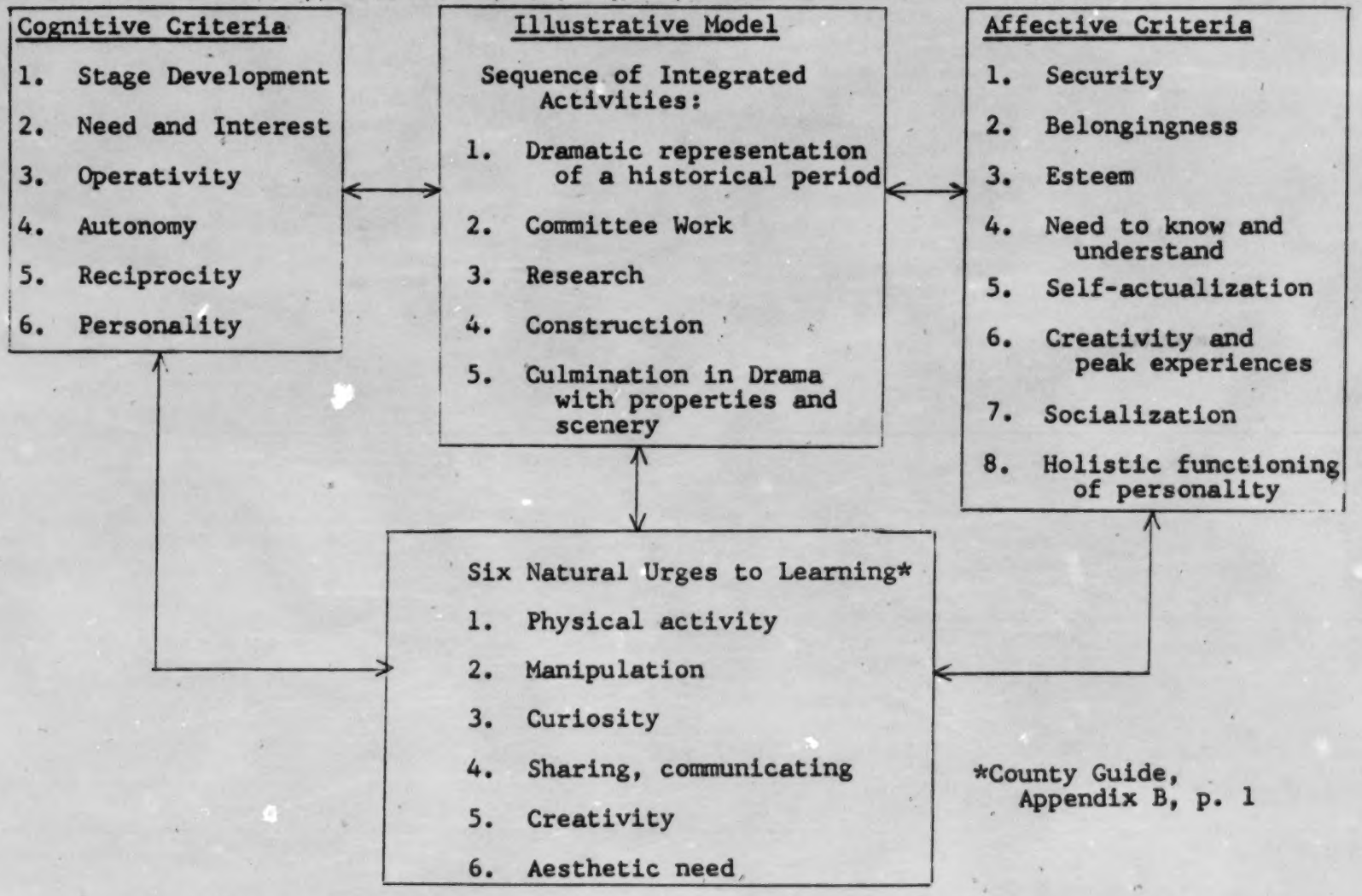
The accompanying diagram explains the structure of the chapter, indicating by two-way arrows the interrelationship between the two sets of criteria, and the interrelationship of these criteria to the five basic phases of the sequence of integrated activities. A further interconnection is made between the six natural urges to learning listed in the County Guide (App. B, p. 1), and both the criteria and the model.

## Part I: Exemplification of the Cognitive Criteria In the Classroom Experience

With reference to the Piagetian criteria for a

COGNITIVE AND AFFECTIVE CRITERIA IN RELATION TO

THE ILLUSTRATIVE MODEL AND TO THE COUNTY GUIDE CRITERIA




*County Guide, Appendix B, p. 1

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hypothetical teaching model as listed in Chapter III, the sequential integrated activities method for teaching social studies appears to the writer to be cognitively and psychologically sound in the genetic sense, in accordance with statement and evidence for each of the criteria.

## Cognitive Criterion 1: Stage Development

The essence of maturational soundness in a teaching method is the degree of its appeal to the innate, spontaneous functions, and secondly to their exploitation in such a manner as to develop the tool of the intellect and the personality as well. These two primary objectives of holistic education have been defined in this paper in terms of cognitive and affective educational criteria. It is assumed therefore, that if, indeed, the method is maturationally sound, it ought to develop in the children behavioral evidence of a good degree of attainment to the other criteria, including the five remaining cognitive and the eight affective criteria. The method was, in the writer's view, well matched to the age and intellectual stage of these nine- and ten-year olds, some of whom were approaching eleven. These children still required much concrete activity upon which to develop the tool of more sophisticated cognitive structuration, but they also needed some initiation into the stage of formal operations, or abstract thought (ages 11-12 to 14-15). While the first historical unit on primitives was simple in content, the final unit, a comparative study of Japan, was a dramatic representation of a much more complex society.

The advances were in part due to skill accumulation, but also to maturation in operativity, autonomy, and reciprocity, in an affectively satisfying environment. Basic to these criteria was the children's interest--indeed fascination--with Japanese culture, the dramatization of which demonstrated imagination, resourcefulness, persistence, attention to detail, inventiveness, enthusiasm, and solidarity as a whole group. Piaget notes the experimental spirit as essential in the stage of formal operations (Piaget, 1972, p. 333), and this method was a good preparation for this final stage of intellectual development.

In the latter part of the school year the children were relatively proficient in the sequential activities, and the teacher was needed mostly as a resource person. It happened that a sizable community of Japanese lived in a nearby town, upon which the teacher drew for guest speakers and teachers, including an exchange student from Japan, who taught the children origami, or paper folding. Thanks to the generous cooperation of this community, and to a friend trained in the art of Japanese floral arrangement, the culmination of this unit, on the last day of school, was an artistic triumph.

On their own initiative, a group of boys practiced outside the classroom for weeks to present a judo exhibition, complete with a peer referee and a set of rules for judo for boys. Their parents had made judo costumes. The girls learned obon dancing from a Japanese teacher, and made their costumes, assisted by their parents. Four children dramatized a formal tea ceremony, while another explained the significance of the

ritual. One scholarly student gave a talk on the Buddhist religion and Shintoism. Sample servings of Japanese food prepared by the children were served to the guests--their parents and siblings. The room was decorated with rows of hangings made of bright-colored crayon shavings ironed between long strips of waxed paper, an idea out of a teacher resource magazine. The cold fluorescent lights were turned off and the room illuminated by many strings of colored lights. At the closing, the children sang in Japanese the Japanese national anthem, for which they had practiced many weeks.

Although this might appear to be a difficult undertaking from the teacher's point of view, the writer recalls it as the easiest historical unit for her as a teacher, due to the high degree of independence developed in the children. It must be added that the year's experience of six historical units was attended by temporary regressions, plateaus and leaps in intellectual and personal development in individuals.

Cognitive Criterion 2:
Need and Interest

This method is based on utilization of the innate capacities of children, and furthermore encourages their "becoming"--their fuller development of spontaneous capacities: the semiotic, or imitative, function through dramatization; the manipulative function through realia construction; the reciprocating function through committee work; and the conative impulses of wishing, desiring, imagining, hoping, dreaming through the drama, song, dance, ritual, and the plastic arts,

focussed on being someone else in a bygone historical period. Above all it satisfies the need for autonomous activity.

The most clearly illustrative example of the criterion of satisfaction of need and interest expressed in the child's own genuine form of activity, is taken from outside the illustrative model, as exemplifying the need to provide time and material resources in the classroom for the child to discover that activity which was most satisfying to him.

A girl who was uninterested in the formal reading period began to work on a paper circus in her spare time, inspired by an illustration in a library book. After receiving recognition for her artistic achievement--the first of many--she began to read at a normal level of attainment. The writer attributes this surprising behavior not only to the legitimization of artistic effort as an academic discipline along with reading, but also to the teacher's acceptance of her need for self-expression, which demanded release before her interest could be aroused in reading lessons. This child's endeavor would be characterized by Maslow as "canalization". (Maslow, 1970, pp. 89-90)

Possibly the abundance of construction activity in the social studies period might have inspired this girl's attempt to create her unique work of art. In illustrating the Piagetian criterion of need and interest as it applies to the social studies method itself, a distinction must be made between (a) those kinds of activities which appealed to the child's need and interest without his conscious dictation; and (b) those kinds of activities

he sought out, or chose, as uniquely satisfying to him. The writer would have to say that the heteronomous element, i.e., the imposed structure of the method, predominated in the earlier weeks of the year's activities. However, it must be remembered that the structure was contoured to the child's spontaneous urges to learning, so that he found them innately appealing and offering possibilities for increasingly autonomous choices of activity.

## Cognitive Criterion 3: Operativity

The five-phase sequence of dramatization, committee work, research, construction, and culmination, is based squarely upon the child's activity, and upon the nourishment of thinking processes based upon cycles of activity which partake of the nature of observation and experimentation, and progression toward complexity. With respect to operativity, the activities of the method would be meaningless if they did not give rise to thought of a kind that leads from one problem to another, tending toward structures of the whole.

The following is an example of cognitive structuration, or operativity, in the illustrative model. Through research the student learned how to build the Chumash canoe, and transformed his conception into a reality by making a replica of it. The precise cognitive structure would have something to do with the relationship between media, such as bark or sinew, and skills; between media and tools, such as awls or blades; between skills and tools in relation to media; between the child's sensorimotor and psychic modes; between the replica and its

historical archetype; and between the replica and its historical uses, or for use in the drama. At the same time the student was gaining trust in his total functioning.

Another example of operativity is taken from the science period. Science kits were used in conjunction with the science textbook, thus providing opportunities for formal experimentation, including the keeping of written records of materials used, processes, and results. After several weeks of independent investigation, one student learned how to use the school's bioscope. Slides from home chemistry sets found their way under this high-powered instrument, and the wonders of microscopic life were revealed. This boy was an example of perseverance through trial and error. In this way, the teacher introduced the scientific method, with its components of observation and experimentation which are basic to operativity. Under the umbrella of science the teacher attempted to impress the children with the nature of hypothesis formation, the process of trial and error, the relativity of truth, openness to experience, the value of curiosity, the uses of failure, etc. The writer had hoped that these learnings could be transferred to the historical viewpoint. She has since learned, through a study of Piaget, that, even if the child had understood the concept of the scientific method sufficiently to transfer it to the study of social science, he could not have voiced exactly what it was that distinguished the two kinds of science, or what linked them. Perhaps such a transfer of learning was more appropriate to fifth graders; nevertheless, the writer felt

that the juxtaposition of the two subject matters--natural science and social science--were of potential value. The writer will never forget the surprise of a student who discovered conflicting statements in two separate social studies textbooks, giving him a glimpse of the relativity of points of view which characterizes adult scientific endeavor and philosophical thought.

Another aspect of operativity in the social studies method is the organizing principle of the structure of the method, which challenges the child to coordinate two sets of plans--his own and those of the group, in pursuit of a total product, the dramatic culmination. To be sure, he does this through concrete activity, but this coordinating activity is a rough anticipation of the "quaternary group of transformations"--the two forms of reversibility which comprise the logic of propositions, i.e., inversions, reciprocity, correlativity, and identity. (Piaget, 1973b, pp. 49, 61) The impetus for all plans of action, including those of this social studies method, within a larger plan of action, is their tendency toward structures of the whole which characterize both biological and mathematical structures. (Piaget, 1971, p. 18; 1973b, p. 24) Even in propositional operations possible to the age group 11-12 to 14-15, experimentation is essential, although tending to be increasingly based upon assumed data, rather than on observed facts alone. Pure mathematico-logical experimentation contrasts with experimentation of the sort possible in this fourth grade social studies method, in that both method and desired end-products differ. In the former case, the experimenter is searching for new information through the

formal processes of the scientific method, while in the fourth-grade social studies method being discussed, the object is a holistic learning experience. The latter nevertheless partakes of observation, experimentation, and anticipation, or forecasting of results. The specific anticipatory experimentation forced upon the child is the act of integrating his own set of plans with those of the committee and of the whole class, in pursuit of a whole structure, the dramatic representation of a historical period. This structure is, in turn, part of a larger structure, i.e., the succeeding historical units of fourth grade, and of succeeding grade levels developing this historical approach. As Piaget has stated, ". . . we must very strongly insist on the necessity of these whole structures for the development of thought." (Piaget, 1973b, p. 21)

Further in regard to operativity, the emphasis on activity represents a shift from coverage of textbook material by each child, and the testing of memorized information, whether of facts or concepts. The students learned fewer concepts of the sort given in the most recent textbooks, but their conceptualizations arose from their experience. When the individual learnings were assembled in a dramatic culmination, the combined learnings gave everyone a broad idea of the historical period.

Finally, with respect to operativity, it must not be assumed that the activities themselves are the goals of the

method, but rather the development of the intellectual processes which are stimulated by the activities, the manner in which they are structured, and the increasing complexity of subject matter. Nor must it be assumed that there is little inquiry or conceptualization, simply because these elements are not heteronomously, externally, imposed. In this method the child learns how to learn, including how to inquire and conceptualize. These two functions include, but are not limited to, the formal processes of self-evaluation following each activity, and standard-setting by the group for each of the sequential activities. Eventually these processes are internalized, so that a certain objectivity is developed with respect to evaluation of oneself and others. But of the quantity and kind of individual and group inquiries and conceptualizations necessary to complete individual and group projects, one can only speculate, since these are self-initiated processes of which the child is not always aware, or at least not able to articulate.

At the end of this historical unit on Early California, as well as with some other historical units, the teacher would ask one philosophical question: "Which life do you prefer--the life of the time you have been studying, or your own life?" This involved a discussion of what parts of one's life one would exchange for the lifestyle being studied. The teacher found that three-fourths of the children in one class preferred the security of the mission life to the independent, but insecure, lifestyle of the primitive tribal unit.

## Cognitive Criteria 4 and 5: Autonomy and Reciprocity

The sequence is based upon the socialization of the child in a democratic, self-governing environment where heteronomous teacher influence is gradually reduced to a minimum, and control is achieved largely through structure, but structure with an intrinsic cohesiveness and momentum, organized around an aesthetic of dramatic representation of a historical period. This structure enables the child to become increasingly both autonomous and reciprocal, so that his need for external regulation is lessened in proportion to his identification with the subject matter, with other individuals, with the group, and with his own powers.

### Autonomy

The following activities of the method emphasized student participation in planning and choosing: (1) committee work as the primary working unit except for individual or paired research periods and whole-class lessons in social studies skills, and a brief whole-class review and evaluation of each day's work, including committee reports; (2) use of evaluation as a self-teaching device; (3) problem-solving as an individual and group responsibility; (4) going to research sources on one's own initiative to verify accuracy in construction and dramatic representation; and (5) going to first-hand sources whenever possible, such as the hills and fields around the school, the actual geography of the Chumash Indian, or encouraging their parents to bring them to museums or other places relevant to

the subject matter. Perhaps the most difficult activity of the sequence, from the standpoint of autonomy, was the research technique outlined in Chapters V and VI. The child was required to use his discretion in selecting the written materials, whether reference books, historical fiction, multi-texts, or illustrated materials pertinent to his need, and, furthermore, to locate his information quickly within these text materials. Only a third of the children satisfactorily mastered the components of this skill. Most of the children were desultory note-takers, preferring to attempt to relocate the information in books that were perhaps not available when they needed them. A poor reader was a good note user, keeping his diagram beside him as he worked. Because authenticity was usually one of the standards in drama and construction, it was frequently necessary for the teacher or aide to guide the individual back to notes or reference sources when in difficulty with his constructions or dramatizations. The unit on Modern California, where sheer volume of information was overwhelming, gave opportunity for acquiring and handling information in different ways, such as sending for free materials and information, graphing, charting, mapping, publication of a class newspaper, etc. However, note-taking from resource books was again resumed in the final unit on Japan.

Evaluation of the validity of information sources was encouraged through the use of multi-texts, reference books, and historical fiction, and also asking questions of invited experts, parents, community figures, and other adults, in order

to arrive at independent conclusions.

Through the device of standard-setting and self-evaluation in light of class-set standards for each activity, self-evaluation as a general tool for growth was encouraged in individuals. As an illustration of self-evaluation, the writer recalls the attempt of one boy to build a rectangular frame. After he had used ten times too many nails, he and the teacher analyzed the problem. It was found that the nails were too large for the wood and kept splitting it, and also that he was always hurrying. While the need to hurry continued to characterize this child's activity, he saw also that there is no mystery to building a frame, if it is taken step by step.

Further under the category of autonomy are included three categories of unique, idiosyncratic behaviors. The first is the solitary worker lost in his paint, clay, cloth, or wood, who had only a loose connection with the overall project, but who was free to bring to the whole his own contribution. The second is the perseverative and the erratic worker, two extremes who found it difficult to keep to schedules. There were, indeed, time requirements for social studies, but also there was freedom to work on projects when other academic requirements were fulfilled. The third example of unique, idiosyncratic personality is that of the student gifted in a single direction, who requires expression of his talent as he requires food. The writer has already mentioned two examples of the budding artist and the bioscope scientist. These two students found it difficult to integrate into group work, but

nevertheless contributed much to the overall project. The rest of the children managed to accept the exceptionality of these children with equanimity.

The writer was fortunate in having one or two constructive leaders among the students, who sensed the needs and interests of the class without enforcing their own opinions, and performed a service in integrating the class in extracurricular activities. These children provided a general example of autonomy within external regulations, which they accepted and with which they negotiated agreeably. They tended to settle classroom disputes, and one boy represented his class in the school student government body. Often they were the teacher's eyes for understanding the dynamics of the group.

Finally, examples are here given of teacher evaluation of the child's ability to autonomize. In question form they are: How well is the child learning to evaluate his capacities and measure his achievements from day to day? How well is he incorporating subject matter for his own uses? How well does he set goals for himself? How much did he achieve of what he set out to do? How does he feel about his achievements and about himself after completion of an activity? These areas were discussed with the child from the standpoint of his own valuation of himself. While there was no measurable way of determining whether the transfer of learning had been made from standard setting in the method to individual standard setting and self-evaluation as an on-going process, the writer feels that the method made possible the transfer of such learnings.

Reciprocity

The success of this method depended in large part upon the acceptance of individual and group responsibility for planning and action. The teacher's responsibility, as time went on, lay in the provision of resources, and, in the beginning, to furnish an overall vision of the program. In addition to goal setting, or plan making, the committees had the responsibility for their own evaluation, i.e., initial setting of standards for committee procedure by the entire class, evaluation of each day's work by each committee, and whole-class sessions following each day's work to hear committee reports, including accomplishments and problems. In this way the class kept abreast of their overall progress toward culmination, and also informed the teacher and the group of committee needs for materials, both those supplied by the school and those which needed to be brought from outside the school. This procedure stimulated contingency planning and coordination of committee projects. The whole-class meeting was also valuable for learning the commonality of committee problems, and for receiving impartial suggestions for solutions of internal committee problems.

As previously noted, standard setting followed the first committee meeting, for which the teacher supplied resource materials for sources of ideas as to suggestions for the committee's project in relation to the dramatic culmination. The committees soon found themselves engaged in problems of selection of interest areas, task assignments, and resolution of interpersonal conflicts. Invariably they found themselves

confronted with the problem of organization. Natural leaders were sometimes, but not always, forthcoming. In the latter case, a child might reluctantly assume the chairmanship, in the interest of getting the committee mobilized. Less frequently, a committee was able to function without a leader. Sometimes cohesion was intense, as in the "F Troop group", which will be referred to later, and at other times committees were loose coalitions of solitaries, pairs, or trios. Committee composition altered with succeeding units, and most children got their first choice of lifestyle topic, with a few having to choose second, or even third, choices, according to the popularity of the topic, the wish to be included in a clique, a pair, or a trio, or other attractive features. As previously stated, negotiation with the teacher or peers was possible in these cases. Returning to the original subject of problems of committee functioning, it was always after the initial committee meeting, with its process of trial and error, that the teacher initiated the setting of standards for committee work, elicited from the class and kept brief and simple. The teacher usually preceded committee sessions with a very brief period during which each committee was questioned as to whether it was ready to go to work. The writer had the assistance of a volunteer aide who circulated among committees to help with individual problems.

The following are two examples of reciprocity, or egodecentering, in committee work. In the writer's view autonomy and reciprocity are co-emergent, as the following examples

show. During a whole-class evaluation period it was learned that one outstandingly successful committee got its work done fast because the chairman twisted ears to enforce conformity. The victims were asked what they thought of this device for getting work done. They admitted that it was efficient, but that they didn't like it. However, although no one mentioned it, the chairman was several inches taller than anyone else, which has strong political influence in fourth grade. The teacher used this opportunity to encourage speculation on ways to organize work, ranging from democratic to authoritarian means, while keeping the discussion at a simple level and without labels.

Another example of the experiencing of reciprocity concerned the problem of how to substitute modern materials for those used in primitive times. There was much resourcefulness and inventiveness in procurement of materials. Since there was no available willow, it having apparently become extinct, the children cut bamboo from a nearby marsh. While bamboo proved successful for building square rancho houses, it was unsatisfactory for the round Chumash house. Therefore, it was necessary to support this ungainly structure by many lines to the window hardware and other fixtures, until the principal pointed out that fire regulations forbade this. Thus the children learned the problems of adaptation to change, i.e., adaptation of plans to limitations of materials used, and also adaptation of the group plan to the strictures of external realities over which they had no control, such as fire regulations.

Teacher evaluation of reciprocity, while not a substitute for individual and group self-evaluation, included the following: The teacher observed how willingly the child accepted group-set standards, and participated in their elaboration. The teacher observed the manner in which the child worked with others. Solitary workers were not considered as necessarily socially undeveloped. Mention has been made, in this connection, with the budding artist and the bioscope scientist, who needed to work alone before they felt willing to integrate themselves into group efforts, however unenthusiastically. In this connection, the reader is referred to a discussion on "canalization" in the section of this chapter dealing with affect. The teacher evaluated the tendency in some children to be dependent or lazy in committee work. Usually one of the class-set committee standards had to do with everyone working, and everyone taking responsibility. To digress momentarily on this subject, the children were increasingly sensitive to each other's laziness or carelessness in committee work and construction, and objected forthrightly. It was not easy for the teacher to distinguish laziness from lack of confidence or even low energy level.

Returning to the subject of evaluation of reciprocity, the teacher evaluated the quality of leadership in committee and in other phases of the sequence, e.g., the degree to which the child identified himself with the needs of the group and served them, or the degree to which the child led the class to a fairer or a more creative vision of ways of working. There

was occasionally a destructive leader, who eventually ran his hegemony into the ground, or was disciplined by the teacher, through restriction of activities.

In the area of self-evaluation, the experience of failure to achieve self-set goals was considered as instructive as success, in the same way that the results of experiments in science period were considered data for further research. A discussion of the problem of failure appears in the section on affect. Regarding adult evaluation of children's work, the writer found that what she thought were sometimes poor achievements were not so viewed by the individual children. The writer began to look at their work through their eyes.

Perhaps the most difficult challenge to autonomy and reciprocity was the meeting of whole-class schedules for completion of committee and individual work so as to finish in time for culmination on a certain date. This date was determined by the County Guide scheduling and by the arrival of materials from the Audio-Visual Department for the next unit, which had been ordered months in advance. The consciousness of time requirements and the coordination on three levels--individual, committee, and class--with these time requirements, seems to the writer to be a high-level accomplishment of intellectual development.

## Cognitive Criterion 6: Personality

Piaget maintains that personality development is a function of ego-decentering, and that the latter is a function of autonomous and reciprocal cognitive development based on

activity suitable to the age and stage of intellectual development. The model provided a high degree of opportunity for the ego-decentering process, within a milieu of autonomy and reciprocity, or mutual respect and coordinated activity with peers, characterized by retrogressions, plateaus and leaps.

Because the children were still in the stage of concrete operations, though nearing its terminus, they were still not fully developed in those functions of complete reversibility which characterize true reciprocity, or mutuality. Nevertheless, the writer felt that the fourth grade is a crucial period in the development and emergence of personality, or personhood, in the Piagetian sense. This method as applied to a fourth-grade class maximized the challenge to successively more sophisticated cognitive structurations within a social context characterized by nurturance of a unique, but socially responsive and responsible personality. The residual feeling when a class disbanded for the summer was a strong sense of solidarity among equals, and was, for the writer, a clear demonstration of the Rogerian process of "becoming a person". It should be noted, in conclusion, that Piaget does not believe personality to be possible, in the sense described above, until the age of adolescence.

## Summary of Cognitive Criteria With Respect to the Classroom Experience

According to the writer's understanding of Piaget, the operativity/autonomy/reciprocity/personality quartet is the core and modus operandi of intellectual growth, in a time frame of stage development through biological and cognitive maturation,

with the dynamic or engine being need or interest, and the product being novelty or invention, i.e., transformation of reality, including that of the individual himself, in his drive to meet and master reality for his need. The entire process might be summed up as an interiorization of plans of action originating in trial-and-error activity, and an exteriorization in higher forms of activity.

The writer would say that each element of the quartet articulates the others: that is, without the parts functioning well, the whole cannot function well. Furthermore, "the best equilibrium is mutual preservation of the parts and the whole". (Evans, 1973, pp. 113-14) Another way to put it is that one cannot imagine the development of autonomy without reciprocity, or the functioning of either of these without operativity. In this triad the child learns to make connections which he had not previously made, and within an environment which does not limit him in this activity.

It is hoped that the writer has demonstrated that the sequential integrated activities method is a good instance of an intrinsic matching of curriculum to the child's own physiological, neurological, and genetic psychological structure, for the reason that the method also manifests an organic unity of its own which is articulated in the six natural urges to learning as listed in the County Guide (App. B, p. 1).

## Part II: Exemplifcation of the Affective Criteria In the Classroom Experience

In holistic-dynamic terms, the Piagetian educational

criteria may be termed the developmental needs of the intellect, which the child does not know that he needs, and therefore cannot articulate, but the deprivation of which may be signaled by poor grasp of subject matter or other cognitive inadequacies. In the same unconscious way, the child has developmental needs of the psyche, whose deprivation or frustration may be signaled by destructiveness, obstructiveness, apathy, etc. Piaget frequently refers to a "Copernican revolution in little" (Piaget, 1972, p. 326; Evans, 1973, p. 138), which must occur in the child's cognitive structures and in his ego-decentering before true personality emerges. This is an apt simile for the affective needs as well. The "Copernican revolution in little" is an outgrowing of the child's placement of himself at the center of the universe, of which he seems to be the original cause, gradually placing himself cognitively and affectively as one among many others, thereby enabling him to grasp the idea of multiple causation. He accomplishes this through the equilibrative processes of the intelligence. Applying this dynamic to Maslow's need hierarchy, it can be said that the prepotent basic needs require gratification before the higher needs emerge; that is, the basic needs for security, belongingness, and esteem precede the need to know and understand, etc.

The following narrative illustrates the holistic-dynamic hypotheses developed in Chapter IV as they relate to the writer's classroom experience in teaching the sequential integrated activities method for social studies, as described in Chapters V and VI. The eight holistic-dynamic educational

criteria are here termed simply "affective criteria". As with the illustrations of the cognitive criteria, each affective criterion is preceded by a general statement correlating the criterion with the model.

Affective Criterion 1:
Gratification of the Security Need

The security, or safety, need is met largely by the structure of the method itself, which allows for advance and retreat according to the child's need for openings and closings vis à vis the environment. Security--the prepotent basic need--is also met through increasing gratification of the needs for belongingness and self-esteem and the esteem of others, the two other basic needs. The students chose activities according to their need and interest, but both teacher and class had the structure to rely on and the culmination to look forward to. It was reassuring to know that while one was engaged in a new activity, such as dramatization or building a house, one was related to the group through committee structure and through obligations imposed on all by the necessities of the product as a whole; and that one was further bound by the posted schedule for all the activities of the next two or three weeks. It was also reassuring to repeat the activities in successive historical units, with increased skill and increasing freedom to invent. In short, there were obligations of a work-oriented, a social, and an aesthetic nature which were reassuring at the same time that they were challenging.

Children were encouraged to ask assistance from the teacher, aides, and peers, and also from guest experts. They

began to solve more of their own problems, and through their successes and failures to learn how to evaluate their capacities and set increasingly realistic goals for their construction activity. The occasional request for change of committee had to be considered as possible fear of failure either to do the job they chose, or to relate to the committee, although this was not always the case.

To avoid allowing children to fall behind or depend on others, the aide and the teacher checked on the number and quality of reference notes taken, the quality of construction, etc., in addition to encouraging self-evaluation. An unavoidable insecurity arose from the too high readability of social studies textbooks and reference books, especially the inclination of textbook writers to include too much information at the lower grade levels. The writer has suggested in another context using a reading specialist in the research periods for assisting all the children, and also for developing sound techniques for reading for a purpose.

As previously noted, teacher attributes which gratify security needs are: genuineness, or realness, in the teacher, empathy, and acceptance of the child where he is in his development. Genuineness in the teacher meant, for the writer, refusing to present a perfect adult image. Her goal as a teacher was to tailor her own self-expectations to her limitations of ability, interest, energy, time, and temperament. Empathy and acceptance of the child often conflicted with the pressures of external curricular requirements in other subjects.

In the writer's view, a higher ratio of adults to children would have eased this conflict. The writer was instrumental in initiating the first parent aide program in her school district in 1968, with assistance from a supportive and understanding principal.

## Affective Criterion 2: Gratification of the Belongingness Need

The belongingness need is met by the group approach to activities and problem-solving, as well as by the aesthetic union achieved in the drama. The writer observed that the children tended to work in pairs or trios or alone, as well as working with the whole committee. The requirement to work in a heteronomously imposed grouping, the committee, alternated with autonomously chosen associations. It should be noted, however, that the committee members were bound by their common interest in the very choice of the activity around which the committee functioned.

A significant facet of the belongingness need is the leadership/followership phenomenon clearly evident in committee work, playground activities, and, to an extent, school student government activities. The advantage of the integrated activities method in this respect is the light shed on such relationships, and the insight gained by the teacher into the politics of these spontaneous children's associations. It was therefore possible for the teacher to discuss with a leader his influence upon his peers vis à vis the class objectives, in the one or two cases where such influence was distracting.

Further, the committee process encouraged the integration of shy children into an interest group which might lead to a more personal association.

The following is an example of the Copernican revolution in microcosm as it relates to both the belongingness need and the esteem need. Among the many spontaneous associations were five or six boys whose custom it was to roam the neighborhood after school. They were bored, bright, unchallenged children. They saw in the third historical unit, the Gold Rush, an opportunity to stage an ambush involving whites and Indians, complete with a covered wagon made from a ten-foot-long table covered with cloth over hoops, and sawhorses transformed into a six-in-hand team. There was a general massacre, followed by a drinking orgy, with whiskey bottles full of colored water. The dramatization was a resounding aesthetic success, as well as a lesson to the teacher in the ongoing process of learning by imitation, whether in or out of the classroom, whether of a good or a bad adult example. Following this succès d'estime the same group began dramatizing books they had read in the individualized reading period. They also began accepting the teacher's rules for flag football, and enthusiastically accepted responsibility for setting up the intramural sports program, with consultation with the principal and other fourth-grade teachers and students. One explanation of their growth in constructive cohesiveness was the presence in their midst of an extraordinary boy, who participated in their boisterous play only within limits, one of those few gifted with the ability

to sense the needs of the group and by example lead it constructively toward goals that transcended present behaviors but were somehow implicit in present behavior. It was this boy who became the judo referee in "F Troop's" final triumph of esteem. By the end of the year these boys had learned that activity can be carried on, and enjoyed, within self-set limits, as exemplified in their faithful acceptance of the referee's decisions according to the book of rules for boys' judo, which all had memorized and understood. It should be noted that these boys worked at an average or above average level of achievement in other academic subjects, indicating (1) that the obstructive child may often be asking for a greater challenge to his intellectual and personal development; and (2) that a method which begins with the child's present level of development has a greater chance of integrating him with culturally established educational goals.

Regarding intramural sports, and recess play in general, the writer connects the children's practice in democratic procedures in committee work with their ability to settle differences in games with less hostile confrontation. Heated arguments developed in games or in committees, but the children eventually arrived at resolution of conflicts with decreasing intervention by the teacher or other adults. Regarding recess games, there was constant negotiation between the teacher and groups of children regarding their right to play their games, such as foursquare, basketball, and football, as they had used to do. The teacher asserted that the school rules were safer,

fairer, more inclusive of all children, and more complicated than their versions. The problem was resolved by the children's usually reverting to their third-grade game habits when the teacher was not present. An exception was flag football, which allowed the physically smaller boys to participate without getting hurt so often. This concession was made only because of its advantages in adding more players in recess games, and a longer string of players in intramural football games.

In summary, belongingness in the method involved looking backward toward the security of dependence upon leaders, or safety in numbers, but also looking forward to gaining the esteem of their peers through individual achievements.

### Affective Criterion 3: Gratification of the Esteem Need

Transcendance of egocentricity in the esteem need, which we have called "the Copernican revolution in little", meant, insofar as the method was concerned, relying less upon others for esteem and more upon a realistic evaluation of oneself, including one's limitations and potentialities. This is, of course, a mature achievement, for which the foundations need to be laid early. The esteem need has been functionally analyzed in Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming, in terms of personal adequacy, as follows: Personally adequate people (1) have a positive view of self; (2) feel liked, wanted, worthy; (3) feel "able to"; (4) can effectively assess their strengths and weaknesses; (5) can act on their needs for self-improvement; (6) can handle their feelings constructively; and (7) can initiate change as well as accept change. (ASCD, 1962, p. 100). This reference

includes other aspects of the definition of personal adequacy, to which the reader is referred for amplification.

Taking these aspects of personal adequacy as a functional definition of esteem, the writer would say that the positive view of self was enhanced by the structure of the method, as evidenced by the following observations. The children could feel liked, wanted, and worthy because the structure provided a variety of opportunities for self-expression, especially in physical activity, as Herman has advised. (Herman, 1969, p. 219) A child whose self-esteem was low had opportunities to achieve in more than one area, thereby having more opportunities to become recognized in at least one area as "worthy", to himself and to others. Being worthy means, in this culture, being able to do things well, and in the method there are five chances to be able to do something well. Regarding the ability to effectively assess strengths and weaknesses, this process was deliberately encouraged through the formality of self- and group evaluation, and also through the self-setting of standards and of short-range goals. Such evaluation removed personal criticism and direct character instruction. Evaluation became the child's own tool for development of his intelligence, as well as enhancing his self-esteem. Self-criticism, therefore, was considered a function of a healthy individual.

Regarding the ability to act on the need for self-improvement, the writer feels that this ability consists of self-acceptance of one's present being, and a feeling of being

free to choose that which one wants most to do. Such freedom, when allowed exercise in the method, revealed a consequent responsibility for the consequences of one's choice. Being free to choose meant specifically being free to set one's own goals for construction of realia. Some children were reluctant to believe they could achieve a pre-set goals, while others were grandiose in their estimates. Self-improvement can be defined as equilibrative advances in cognitive structurations through the experiences of the sequential activities; thus, self-improvement is removed from the arena of competition for grades or from heteronomous pressure to improve. In addition, peer example was a stimulus to self-improvement.

With regard to the ability of the adequate person to handle his feelings constructively, the standard-setting and evaluation processes of this method were instructive, because they tended to encourage objective self-evaluation. Some remarks about failure are relevant to this point, which deals with the esteem need. The rule for all work was essentially that failure is instructive, as in the scientific method. Evaluations of the drama, committee, or construction work, which followed each of these activities, began with a discussion by the whole class of "things we did well" and followed with "things we could do better". Failure could mean that the goal set was too high or too low; that a child might be sick, hungry, worried, tired, etc.; that the plan was in need of modification or scrapping; that timing was too fast, too slow, or that it was the wrong time to do something; that the plan

was a good one, but that more time was needed to develop it; that planning had not been sufficiently discussed in committee and that conflicts had not been sufficiently aired; that the plan was not carefully enough executed, although it might have been a good one; that research notes had not been used enough; that materials had not been ordered well in advance; that an individual or a committee had not coordinated its plans with the whole group; that a chairman was twisting ears again and that something needed to be done about it; that external considerations like the weather or school rules intervened, etc.

The reader would probably agree that the "F Troop" boys sought esteem as well as affinity. In proportion as their need for the esteem of others through bravado was replaced by self-esteem through individual and group achievement, they began to emerge as separate, unique, and autonomous beings.

With regard to initiating change as well as accepting change, the activities provided something to change, to vary, to re-invent at higher levels, to scrap, to modify, to develop in an operative, or intuitive way as one went along, or to develop according to a pre-set plan. This flexibility was an important factor in gaining confidence, or self-esteem, through trial and error, thereby gradually obviating the need for external esteem.

In the above paragraph on analysis of failure of plans, complex elements such as analysis, synthesis, persistence, patience, imagination, foresight, and above all, faith in one's original, unique vision, were required of the children, and

children vary in their capacity to endure creative crises. Balanced with this is the "here and now" attitude of children of age nine to eleven, so that more reachable goals could be substituted with equanimity. It was the experiencing of these crises without fear of disapproval of others which was valuable in enhancing personal adequacy.

In summary with regard to gratification of the basic needs, the teacher observed a gradual replacing of dependence and egocentricity by assertiveness based upon self-confidence, self-esteem, and the emergence of unique personality.

Affective Criterion 4:
Gratification of the Need to Know and Understand

The writer feels that this method tends to resolve the artificial dichotomy between what the teacher wants the children to know and understand, and what the child himself wants to know and understand--that is, the method tends to resolve the problem of the locus of valuation of need and interest, which, according to Piaget, is a moral question, a question of values. (Evans, 1973, pp. 9-10) If the reader recalls that this is an actual teaching experience derived from a gradual evolution of curriculum prior to 1970, and not an ideal model of holistic-dynamic theory as applied to education, certain characteristics of the method can be considered to be in advance of their time.

In holistic-dynamic terms, the sequential integrated activities method develops cognition of the individual and the generic, the concrete and the abstract, the particular and the general. Rather than relying upon the inculcation of abstractions--

in this case social science conceptualizations having little basis in the child's activity--the method enables the child to encompass the general by rooting his thought processes in experiences native to him, to his inner and outer realities, through simulating the vicissitudes of primitive life, as well as their dances, songs, ceremonies, games, and work. He does this through interrelating with peers, with books, and with tools, as well as with ideas about primitive life. He begins to compare, to identify himself with an abstraction calling itself "Docas, the Indian boy of Santa Clara", etc., and to see the similarities as well as the differences between himself and that long dead abstraction. While keeping the child rooted in the concrete, individual, biological, particular domain of activity and experience, the method does not cut off the possibilities of mastering the abstractions which are the essence of reason. These abstractions derive their substance from actual personal experiences in several modes, thus assuring their psychological soundness in both the cognitive and affective sense.

Because the child's activities were based upon the facts of historical research, one of the teacher's primary responsibilities was the frequent reminder to the class of the standard of accuracy in the drama, and the clarification of the idea of dramatic representation as a form of historical research. Textbook information was thus transformed into personal meaning because of its integration with the child's activities. In summary, cognition here involved not only learning facts but

also learning to know oneself in relation to an academic context. Understanding one's world, past and present, requires understanding oneself within that world. This understanding was concrete. The child knew the meaning of society by experiencing the birth and growth of a small society in his classroom, of which he was a vital part. This small society was both the solidarity forged through the sequence of activities, and also the replication of another society in another time. The class proved to be a workshop for developing the skills of democracy.

As noted previously, the writer asked the children to compare the lifestyle they had been studying with their own lifestyle, and to choose those aspects they preferred or disliked. Such a process was a values choice involving a complicated sifting of learnings derived from historical research, as well as a concentrated recall of one's own life circumstances and feelings in light of these learnings. The child was, in effect, asked to view his own life objectively, if only for a moment. He was also, in effect, being asked to attempt the imaginative effort of empathy for a life pattern so different, so removed in time, and yet so similar to his own.

A final element of holistic cognition concerned the time taken for unscheduled events which happened to seize the imagination and interest of the children. Maslow would call this "free-floating attention", A Freudian concept. (Maslow, 1970, p. 207) Two examples were: a spontaneous and rather sophisticated discussion of the first manned moon voyage which had just occurred; and the hatching of praying mantis egg cases in the

spring. These egg cases had been attached to branches enclosed in fine mesh cages built by the children in the patio. The children were fascinated by the race between the ants trying to carry off the eggs emerging from the large casings, and the hatching of the eggs which would release the infants to fly out of reach of their predators. These events interrupted the class routine and gave a release from creative tensions.

## Affective Criterion 5: Gratification of the Need for Self-Actualization

The essence of self-actualization in the method is the freedom to become what one is. This method fosters cognitive and emotional independence from the teacher, gradually replacing it with trust in his own spontaneous, unique functioning, including, but not limited to his reasoning powers. All of the child's capacities were challenged in a variety of modes, so that he found those expressions which were unique to him in his process of becoming a person.

Before exemplifying self-actualization in the classroom, it is necessary to recall Maslow's distinction between self-actualization as a product of lifelong experience and maturity in adulthood, and that of "good growth toward self-actualization" as it is manifested in young people. The variety and aesthetic unity of activities encouraged good growth toward self-actualization through a process of "canalization", or pursuit of the intrinsic need gratifier--that which is required by the organism to fulfil itself and for which no substitute gratification will suffice. (Maslow, 1970, pp. 89-90) Indications of healthy

canalization were: success in endeavors, animation, spontaneity, improvisation, persistence, delight, enthusiasm, concern for the group project, a feeling of anticipation for the next step, transfer of enthusiasm to other spheres, awakening of wider interests, reflection upon eternal verities, evidences of increasing self-confidence, increasing convictions, etc.

Canalization can be viewed as stubbornness or recalcitrance, if misunderstood. The writer recalls the instance of the boy who spent weeks of recess and lunch periods in the classroom trying to learn to operate the bioscope. In a parent conference the father spoke about his son's perpetual resistance to his wishes. The father was amazed when I told him of his son's achievement, one among many, indicating an extraordinary general intelligence which required freedom to pursue knowledge according to internal bent. The father's attitude toward his son was transformed.

Of the child whose ability to canalize his interest is average or weak, it can be said that active methods revive and encourage his drives to become his unique self through challenging him to make decisions as to his own choice of activity. Such an example is a tall, shy, overweight girl who began painting a mural for background scenery. She eventually covered much of the two-wall mural with her own patient, careful work, reversing her tendency to hide her person. This girl could be said to be overly compliant, and yet she produced a forceful, conspicuous piece of work. In the end, her self-realization in activity overcame her acute physical embarrassment.

## Affective Criterion 6: Gratification of the Need for Creativity and Peak Experience

Recalling from Chapter IV Rogers' definition of creativity and its preconditions, the method can be said to challenge creation of (a) an observable product, (b) novelty, and (c) interaction in all sequences of the activity. The writer wishes to emphasize creativity in this method as not confined to the gifted child, but as a necessary component--indeed, the very basis-- of all activities. To quote Piaget, "To understand is to invent", intelligence being the tool whereby facts are put in relation to one another in a combination which is new to the child and whose product bears his unique stamp. Whereas the adult may view the sequenced activities as repetitions in subject matter and method, to each child his activity is utterly novel, because it springs from spontaneous coordinations of plans of actions, whether in making something, relating to others within a set of self-imposed rules, impersonating a historical figure, or locating printed information he needed.

A more obvious aspect of creativity in the method was the aesthetic element often missing from the curriculum. The culmination in a group dramatization of a historical period was a peak experience for all the children, partly because it brought together individual efforts which might have seemed previously unrelated, and partly because of the "climax of understanding in learning episodes" which Bruner refers to. (Bruner, 1960, p. 49)

However, the writer believes each child had peak experiences, as Maslow claims is frequently the case. These might occur at the successful conclusion of long or frustrating effort, or fortuitously in experimenting with materials and tools, or committee processes, or in the resonances of the drama, etc. The method enabled the children to see that life itself can be a creative act, and that one can create one's own novelty, such as a science project, or a dramatization of a book, or a new way of relating to one's brother or sister or friend.

Affective Criterion 7:
Gratification of the Need for Socialization

Maslow states that his self-actualizing people are ". . . more completely individual than any group that has ever been described, and yet are also more completely socialized, more identified with humanity than any other group yet described. They are closer to both their specieshood and to their unique inidividuality." (Maslow, 1970, p. 178) This sense of specieshood is the sense in which the writer refers to socialization, or citizenship instruction, as a necessary component of the social studies curriculum.

Enough has been said in this narrative to convey the essentially social nature of the children's experience. The entire social studies curriculum of the 1960's in Ventura County was oriented toward an expanding view of the world, and is also evident in the integrated social science conceptualizations of the latest social studies textbooks, as well as in the new Framework for the Social Sciences. The difference between this method and the inquiry/conceptualization methods

of more recent social studies curricula in California is in the process of socialization through experiencing it in the microcosmic society of the classroom. This is not to say that other active methods are not as valid, and perhaps more current. In regard to the socialization of children, Piaget's comments are pertinent here concerning his observations of two examples of children's societies free from adult intervention, in which he discovered, as did the writer, that children are capable of self-government. (Piaget, 1973a, pp. 111, 122-3) The writer's class decided to hold a formal trial by jury of one of their peers whom they felt was a perpetual offender on the playground. This teacher was surprised, once again, by their ability to define issues and balance arguments, as well as mete out punishment fitting the crime.

Regarding the writer's observation of socialization in this method, the dynamics of relationships were not explicit, because of the cognitive and linguistic limitations of fourth-graders, but they were nevertheless operating. Balancing of needs between individuals and between individuals and the group was syncretic, in that ends, or solutions to problems, were arrived at through trial and error, and this was time wasting, as Piaget predicts. (Piaget, 1973a, p. 106)

Both Maslow and Rogers have stated that the "uncovering" techniques of their clinical practice of psychotherapy revealed the essentially social nature of the patients who were emerging from psychotherapy. The writer would have to concur with regard to her experience of this method. The relative freedom

enjoyed by these children to formulate and live by their own rules did, indeed, reveal a realistically social inclination.

It was necessary on one occasion only for the writer to confront a child with the consequences of his behavior, and to give him the choice of changing or being removed to another teacher's class. He elected to change his ways, with an occasional slip backward. There was one other special case of a hyperactive child who was utterly unable to cope with this method because of the distractions of several activities occurring simultaneously. Since it was not at that time possible to remove the child, the teacher and the class had to accept this as a problem for all to deal with. The writer also feels that there were some children who might have preferred the relative security of the traditional method of textbook/memorization/test; but that they eventually resolved the tensions of adjustment, judging only by their enthusiasm for work in the later units. It was only at the year's end that the writer realized that the class had developed solidarity, an identity as a group, forged through the hard work and the failures and triumphs shared by all.

## Affective Criterion 8: Holistic Functioning of the Personality

Whitehead stresses the need in education for "strengthening habits of concrete appreciation of the individual facts in their full interplay of emergent values". (Maslow, 1970, p. 224) That which became valuable to the child emerged from testing his environment against his felt needs, and vice versa. As examples of this interplay of emergent values, the writer cites the child's experience as a primitive in the dramatization of Indian

life, as a modern when comparing lifestyles, as a critic in formal evaluation of each activity, as a committee member, as a worker at his carpentry, sewing, or painting, as an artist at his easel or mural, as a researcher in books and in the field, as an actor in the drama, as a rulemaker in participating in establishing standards for activities, as a mediator between his intrapsychic reality and external reality, as a creator in improvising upon the familiar, and as a philosopher in reflecting upon his experience as both a primitive and a modern through the medium of dramatic representation, where he is at once himself and someone living in another culture.

Those examples of holistic functioning which come to mind have to do with children who discovered unknown capacities or developed inklings of existing abilities, or worked against disabilities. They seem to represent the tendency of the method to bring out that which was innate but undeveloped in the child and might unbalance him in his self-actualization if left unchallenged. The most obvious example is that of the slow reader who could realize himself in the more physical activities such as the drama, construction, and cooperation with peers who were better readers. The following are other examples of this balancing dynamic of the method. A boy who stuttered forced himself to speak frequently, out of his eagerness and curiosity to learn and to communicate. Girls attempted manual activities usually reserved to boys, and played the part of miners in the Gold Rush unit, one of them publishing a newspaper of mining camp news telling of efforts at self-government among the miners,

as well as the more lurid aspects of mining life, taken from authentic accounts. Girls were the first to dramatize their books in the individualized reading period. Another means of reporting was the writing, illustrating and binding of a book by one girl. A shy boy read to the class sophisticated and humorous poems of his own invention. One of the more mature girls revealed an unusally broad awareness and concern for remote and troubling world events, and was able to easily select and develop areas of interest from the distracting quantity of information in the unit on Modern California. A boy with a neurological handicap brought into the classroom current events and advanced viewpoints gained from listening to the television news programs, indicating not only a high level of intelligence but also a highly socialized personality. This same boy had to have his reading materials taped and his test questions read to him, to which he wrote answers with key words. A pretty and popular girl whose test answers in all subjects were always correct, found in the method a validation of other modes of expression involving the body, the senses, and the arts, so that she was not limited to a purely rational, linear mode, in which she was already reinforced by the grading system. A group of girls designed a cheerleading routine for the football playoffs.

These and many more examples demonstrate to the writer that the method of teaching social studies through a sequence of integrated activities triggered the release of energies in all subjects and in all directions in and out of the classroom.

a spontaneous balancing of capacities occurred in most individuals, in which the cognitive and affective modes of expression were integrated, and the children's identities emerged in an unsuspected uniqueness.

## The "Holistic Report Card"

As a basis for grading, the holistic teacher might evaluate a child on the following points, also taking into account the self-evaluation of the student and the views of his parents:

1. Has the child a high degree of autonomy/reciprocity, or individual and group self-government?
2. Does he evidence a good development of the capacity for successive cognitive structurations of increasing complexity, judging by the quality of his productions?
3. Has he a high degree of basic need satisfaction?
4. Has he progressed well in actualizing his own unique individuality?
5. Has he an adequate--not merely sufficient, but overflowing--sense of self?
6. Does he attend, perceive, learn, and think in non-rubricized ways?
7. Has he had experiences in the creation of novelty? What kinds? With use of materials? With interpersonal relationships? With his intrapsychic reality?
8. Has he had peak experiences? How frequently? What kinds?
9. Has he an increasing sense of specieshood, or feeling for himself as a member of the human race, and a similar feeling for others?

## Motivation, Cognition, and Socialization In Light of the Classroom Experience

### Motivation

Motivating the child to learn was not a problem for the writer in her experience of teaching the sequential integrated activities method for fourth grade social studies. There are several reasons why this may be so. In terms of Piagetian theory, the method was maturationally suitable because it was tailored to the cognitive development of fourth graders, while challenging them to further development according to their own interest in the various activities and the subject matter, and their need for expression as defined in the six natural urges to learning cited in the County Guide for this method (App. B, p. 1). In terms of holistic-dynamic theory, the method gratified both basic and higher needs to a good degree, as illustrated in this chapter, and therefore the method contained its own intrinsic reinforcers, or unconditioned stimuli, upon which academic learnings were erected. Finally, with regard to motivation, the cumulative effect of the sequence of organically related activities provided a momentum toward an aesthetic climax, as a reward for the challenges of the intermediate steps.

### Cognition

In Piagetian terms, the increasing sophistication of spontaneous cognitive structurations was enhanced by presentation of problems the child was maturationally ready to solve, problems which led naturally into problems of a higher order, such as self-selection of textbook information to meet the needs of the drama and construction. In reading for his own

purposes, the child was challenged to move from a predominantly imaginative mode to an analytic/synthetic mode and back again in spontaneous sequences of equilibrations, each of which was more complex because it partook of the nature of increasing reversibility, classifications, etc., with respect to both assimilations and accommodations and also to non-rational and rational modes of functioning. The element of ego-decentering as a product of increasing familiarity with the more formal processes of mental operations is counted as a benefit of this interrelationship between activities in various modes. Mind/body dichotomizations are resolved by active methods such as this one. In cognition as well as in motivation, the child's particular need, which has both an affective and cognitive component, was the determiner of his activity, within the structural limitations of the program.

In holistic-dynamic terms, cognition was freed somewhat from the rubricized learning characteristic of textbook/memorization/test methods. The illustrative method allowed more problem-centered, rather than means-centered, activity, because the problems of concrete activity demanded fresh attention, perception, learning, and thinking--that is, seeking solutions from within each unique problem presented to the child in each activity. Furthermore, these non-rubricized thought processes challenged the child to draw upon felt, or sensed, reactions, because each activity gained its meaning from the other activities, and therefore challenged the child to rely upon his total sense of the situation in an intuitive,

as well as rational, way. In other words, the organically related activities tended to challenge the child as a whole person in his cognitive and affective functioning. He was challenged to feel his way in situations which were often beyond his capacity for conscious integration, but not necessarily beyond his capacity to integrate unconsciously. This cannot be stated categorically, and would require either phenomenological observation, or validation in an experimental mode. The fourteen criteria have been so phrased as to evaluate teaching models according to their tendency to fulfil certain objectives.

## Socialization

The socialization occurring in this classroom experience was of a concrete nature, evidenced by the several illustrations in this chapter. The classroom was, indeed, a small society. This accords with Piaget's argument that reciprocity between nations begins in the classroom, with subjective experiences of increasing autonomy and reciprocity. (See p. 50.) Socialization--or decentering of the ego--as Piaget interprets it, was therefore a result of spontaneous equilibrations characterized by increasing reversibility leading into the stage of formal operations and the consequent development of personhood as increasingly independent, decentered, reciprocating behaviors characteristic of mature personality.

Socialization in holistic-dynamic terms occurred in the classroom because of the enhancement of personal adequacy through challenges to the whole person in a variety of activities. A bond between the children developed as a result of cooperative,

reciprocal work, increased testing of external reality, and increased awareness and integration of intrapsychic functioning. The child was learning how to learn, a skill necessary for adult living, and, more specifically, for growth toward one's higher nature.

As a consequence of living through this experience, the writer has inevitably returned to Pribram's dictum that there is an intrinsic neurological structure which respects the intrinsic structure of the materials to be taught. (See p. 28.) On the deepest levels of feeling and knowing, there was an experiencing of the unity and continuity of the history of the human race through the history of California, whose people have lived under seven flags, however briefly or tumultuously some of those sovereignties endured. History has a meaning, according to Piaget, only insofar as it gives up answers as to why things are the way they are now. (See p. 46.) Whether or not they were aware of it, the children studied the history of their state to find their historical roots and also their human nature, in the same way that Piaget discovered the development of intelligence in the species through studying its development in young children. The children discovered through research and dramatization that each civilization contributed to the present through its adaptation to and use of the geographic milieu, its technology, and its mores, but, above all, through its need to actualize itself maximally. As noted previously, this was an awareness that could not be verbalized conceptually at this age. They discovered through experience both the aspirations

of the human spirit and also the internal and external limitations of the human condition. The holistic-dynamic principle of spontaneous growth toward a higher nature was reflected not only in the child's self-actualizing activities in the method, but also in the impulses to growth toward a higher nature in the race itself, as manifested in the history of California. It is the emphasis of spontaneous growth toward a higher nature in both individuals and the race which may be one of the most significant matches between the intrinsic neurological structure in the child and the structure of the particular portion of human history studied by the children.

The same search for a structure in the physical and social sciences motivated the conferees at Woods Hole in 1959, a search which resulted in Bruner's seminal work, The Process of Education, 1960, and which eventuated in the California Study and the new Social Sciences Education Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten and Grades One through Twelve, 1975, which is now being implemented in local school districts. It appears that education in California has an unprecedented opportunity to prove Piaget's hypotheses regarding the partial isomorphisms between biology and knowledge, through working out in classroom practices the matching of intrinsic neurological structure with the intrinsic structure of the subject matters taught in the schools.

# APPENDIX A

Permission from Ventura
County Board of Education
For Use of Excerpt from
Early California, as
Contained in Appendix B

Permission is hereby granted for Bonnie Davidson to include in her Master's thesis an excerpt from the 1962 Fourth Grade Social Studies Guide entitled Early California, published by the Ventura County Board of Education.

Eugenie Howard

Name

Director of Curriculum

Title

11-4-76

Date

# APPENDIX B

Excerpt from Early California:
A Sequence of Experiences
In Early California Life
For Fourth Grade Children,
Ventura County, California,
Board of Education, 1962

# EARLY CALIFORNIA

A SEQUENCE OF EXPERIENCES IN EARLY CALIFORNIA LIFE

for

FOURTH GRADE CHILDREN

VENTURA COUNTY BOARD of EDUCATION
Dean E. Triggs, Superintendent
May 1947
Revised, 1951
Revised, 1962

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Before the 1962 revision was made several guides produced throughout the state were studied. Ideas were gained, materials identified, and sequences adapted. Special acknowledgment is made to:

San Bernardino County Schools for Early California, 1960
Long Beach Unified School District for Life in Early California, 1959
Pasadena City Schools for Historic California, 1960

# INTRODUCTION

The Ventura County Schools subscribe to the philosophy that the purposes of education in the elementary school can be achieved best by teaching the social studies as integrated experiences. Children gain a knowledge of history, anthropology, geography, science, civics, economics, art, and music through these rich and varied experiences. In addition, skill in the use of techniques of democratic living and the desire to live democratically is developed. These are the means by which our democratic relationship with othe peoples of the world are strengthened.

The general purposes of the unit of work are as follows:

-to help the child understand the culture of his community, his state, and his nation through first-hand experiences, excursions, the use of books and visual aids, and the arts.

-to develop the ability to work either alone or in groups.

-to afford opportunity for problem-solving through research techniques. (See "Keys to Research", Ventura County Schools.)

-to help the child see the place of the skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic in our culture; to motivate the child to seek personal achievement in those skills, and to have the opportunities to apply them in situations which are meaningful.

-to challenge the child's interest and curiosity and to keep alive the questioning attitude which leads to creative pursuits.

-to stimulate creative expression in fine and industrial arts, music, rhythmic bodily movem....., and creative writing.

The unit, Early California, is an appropriate area of learning for fourth grade classes. Children at this age are intensely interested in the colorful background of their state and find much in it which is adaptable to interpretation through dramatic activity. The story of life in early California is also part of the whole story of the settlement of the United States and, as such, provides historical and geographical background for units to be experienced in the fifth grade.

## SPECIFIC PURPOSES *



The specific purposes of the unit on Early California are:

-to provide the child of the fourth grade with experiences and activities which increase his understanding and appreciation of the culture of the early days in California.

-to develop an understanding of how the California Indians, the Mission Padres, and Rancheros met their basic needs of life, as contrasted to our modern ways of living.

-to develop an understanding of the scope of California history, including important people and dates.

-to develop geographical concepts, as related to California and its place in the United States and in the world.

-to provide creative experiences through which understanding and appreciation of the arts, music, the dances and the crafts of the early days in California may be developed.

-to enable the child to participate in purposeful activities in reading, writing, language, and arithmetic as related to the study of early California.

-to provide an opportunity for the child to experience science activities related to California's past.

-to provide many opportunities for the child to be a member of a group, sometimes as a leader and sometimes as a follower.

-to provide industrial arts experiences through which the child understands the importance of tools, materials, and processes, and how these are related to life in early California.

-to learn how California came to be discovered.

-to develop map reading skills, including location of continents, oceans, valleys, and places in California.

-to learn the necessity for laws concerning the conservation of wildlife in California.

-to develop specific research skills, such as note taking, simple outlining, summarizing, use of table of contents, glossary, and index.

-to locate reference materials.

-to study continuity of history in California and relative historical events and the world.

*Used by permission from Pasadena City Schools.

The order in which attention is directed to various activities of the unit is in sequential arrangement. Each section is interwoven into the other in actual use with groups. There should be easy transition from one part to the next. A class might have more emphasis to one phase than another, but should develop all phases to some extent. It is necessary to bring out comparisons and contrasts between the lives of the people in early California and our own lives. If fourth grade children develop a keen appreciation of California mission and rancho days and California as it is today, then the study of this unit will be of inestimable value in helping to build a pride in our state.

Five areas of experience have been developed within the unit. They are:

-Indian Life
-Explorers
-Mission Life
-Rancho Life
-Gold Rush

For a complete and chronologically planned sequence, it is recommended that the unit begin with a study of Early California Indian Life and Explorers. Three to four weeks should be sufficient for these sections.

Mission Life and Rancho Life are the major areas in the unit, and one of these should be selected for greater emphasis. Approximately ten to twelve weeks will be needed for this portion of the uni..

A two or three-week study of the Gold Rush at the end of the semester can serve to strengthen concepts of the historic and geographic relationships between life in early California and that in other parts of the nation, and to build understandings basic to the study of Modern California and the Westward Movement.

Each area in this guide is organized under three headings:

-Purposes and Problems
-Experiences
-Materials

The first column makes suggestions as to the purposes and problems that the teacher, as a guide, may help the children to recognize and solve. These may arise after the initiation of the unit or anywhere within its development. Children develop and grow when they can identify themselves actively with the solving of problems through a number of related experiences. The process suggested here will stimulate critical thinking and clarify concepts. The third column identifies source materials such as state textbooks, audio-visual materials from the Ventura County Schools Audio-Visual Department, and books from the County Schools Library.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ARRANGED ENVIRONMENTS

The room environment should be arranged to utilize the natural urges to learning which are presented in the list that follows:

* 1. The drive to be physically active
2. The desire to manipulate and construct
3. The urge to satisfy curiosity
4. The desire to share and communicate
5. The urge to re-create life through dramatic activity
6. The desire to express ideas and feelings aesthetically

Educational materials that are helpful in stimulating the drives to learning are listed in the bibliography.

A selection may be made as follows:

EDUCATIONAL MATERIALS **

****All materials listed are available from the County Schools Library or from the County Audio-Visual Department, unless otherwise specified.**

Books

Bailey, Picture Book of California (May display the cover)
Buell, California Stepping-Stones (Wickiup - p. 9)
Dawson, California (Houses of the Chumash - pp. 14-15)
Hunt, New California the Golden (An acorn storehouse - p. 19).
Richards, California Yesterdays (Indian dance - p. 2)
Shapiro, The Golden Book of California (Map - California as an island - p. 4, and explorer Cabrillo - p. 5)

Exhibits

Basket (With piece of flint)
Mortar and Pestle
Stone Ax

---

* For additional information regarding the utilization of the drives to learning, see: Teachers Guide to Education in Later Childhood, compiled by the Bureau of Elementary Education, State Department of Education, 1957, pp. 25-28.

Picture Set

745 California and Mission Indians 11x14 color 16 pictures

Poster

California Indian Tribes

Map

Relief Map -- California, Physical and Political (Plastic)

Bulletin Boards -- thought-provoking and informational

Helpful references: A.C.E. Bulletin, Space, Arrangement, Beauty in School
Kelley, Marjorie. Matting and Displaying
Weseloh, E-Z Bulletin Boards

Art and Craft Materials (Provided by school district)

Clay
Easel and paint
Raffia
Twigs and grasses

## RESPONSES TO THE ENVIRONMENT

Chairs may be arranged so the children can have a short discussion of the environment when they first come into the room. In the discussion, opportunity will arise to invite the children to explore the environment. A conversation such as the following one is typical of those the children will carry on as they are making their exploration.

"Are we going to study about Indians again?"

"Oh, but these are not Pueblo Indians."

"Look at this stone bowl. I wonder what it was used for."

"See the funny grass houses. They look like upside-down bowls!"

After a short exploration period, the children are asked to come back to their chairs. They are eager to talk about the pictures, books, and objects that they examined. Some questions arise which lead to group discussions. Certain questions are answered to the satisfaction of the group, and others are listed on the chalkboard.

A story of the activities of an Indian family at breakfast time may be read to the group from Snedden's, Docas, Indian of Santa Clara, pages 3 to 6. 3

At the conclusion of the story, one of the children may ask, "May we play that story?" Others join in, and they plan to dramatize the story. The following events may be outlined before the dramatization:

Docas is hungry

Making a fire

Waking the children

Hunting for a rabbit

Family eating breakfast

In evaluating their play, the children point out the fact that they do not know enough about the early California Indians to carry on the activities satisfactorily. With teacher guidance, a list of questions that will likely be developed are:

What did the Indian house look like? How was it built?

How did the Indians cook in a basket?

How did they make acorn mush?

How did the Indians hunt?

How did the Indians make fire sticks?

Where did the Indians come from?

What clothing did the Indians wear?

What games did the children play?

What were the activities of the men and women?

The play and discussion will develop the children's interest which will be satisfied by a variety of activities and experiences. The outline that follows records some of the possibilities for these activities which help to answere the questions posed by the children. *

*See Michaelis, Social Studies for Children in a Democracy, pp. 369-394. (1963 ed.)

| PURPOSES AND PROBLEMS | EXPERIENCES | MATERIALS 4 |
|---|---|---|
| To learn more about the life of the California Indian to make play more real | Read and share information about the California Indians | Books<br>Flower, A Child's History of California, pp. 15-22<br>Richards, California Yesterdays, pp. 3-8; maps p. 7, 40 |
| Where did they come from? | Study a map or globe to find that there is a theory that they came from Asia by land and ice bridges | |
| Where did they settle? | Make a map of California showing where the different tribes lived. Trace their possible routes to these areas | Maps<br>Political-Physical Map of California<br>California Map of Tribes<br>Globe |
| How did the climate and topography influence the lives of the Indians? | Locate coastal areas, deserts, mountains, valleys, rivers, lakes, bays, and islands.<br>Discuss how the geography of an area influenced the location of the settlements. | Related Science<br>Schneider, Science Far and Near Grade 3, pp. 23-38, 58-65, 178-179, 189-191, 206-210<br>Schneider, Science for Today and Tomorrow, Grade 6, pp. 213-246<br>Schneider, Science in Your Life, Grade 4, pp. 118-132 |
| Describe the early Indian | Do research using books, pictures, and slides | Slides<br>Early California History (2x2) |
| | Discover that the early California Indians, except for their shorter stature, facial structure, and absence of scalp lock, resembled other Indians studied in the third grade | See "Keys to Research", a bulletin from Ventura County Schools Offic<br>Pictures<br>California Indians #559 or #215<br>See bibliography for additional picture references |
| What clothing did the Indians wear? | Read for information and look for pictures | Books<br>Bleeker, The Mission Indians, p. 27<br>Buell, California Stepping-Stones p. 5<br>Dawson, California, p. 6<br>Snedden, Docas, Indian of Santa Clara, pp. 18-20 |
| What did the Indians wear on special tribal occasions? | Discuss the fact that several of the pictures studied during research showed Indians wearing feathers, capes, and quills | Books<br>Hunt, New California the Golden, pp. 15-16 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| What was the favorite article of ornamentation? | Read and discover that many women trimmed the fringe of their deerskin skirts with bits of pretty, polished shells | Richards, California Yesterdays, pp. 20-22 5 |
| | See the filmstrip that shows how the Indian women prepared deerskin for clothing | Filmstrip<br>Early California Hide Curing |
| What plants provided clothing for Indian women? | Experiment with vegetable dyes, such as onion skins and beet juice. Carry out some of the suggestions made in the science text | Schneider, Science Far and Near, pp. 75-99. (Grade three)<br>Ventura County, Classroom Arts-Crafts, p. 76 |
| To dramatize Indian life | Children may decide that they have discovered enough about the dress of the California Indians to be able to make some costumes to enrich dramatic activity | Inexpensive muslin or burlap may be used |
| | Plan play to make use of clothing. | Los Angeles City Schools, California. Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow<br>Hunt, W. B. Indian and Camp Handicraft, p. 22-23 (rawhide) |
| | Reinact play | |
| | Evaluate | |
| | While reading about the various plants that were used for clothing, the children may decide to find out what plants were used for food | Books<br>Bleeker, The Mission Indians, pp. 31-40<br>Buell, California Stepping-Stones pp. 7-8<br>Ewing, When California Was Young, pp. 4-7<br>Flowe., A Child's History of California, pp. 16-18<br>Hunt, New California the Golden, pp. 16-17<br>Richards, California Yesterdays, pp. 12-19<br>Underhill, Indians of Southern California, pp. 15-19 |
| To find out what the Indians ate and how it was stored and prepared | Share information from various books through the discussion of the use the Indians made of acorns, seeds of wild grains, grasses, wild berries, nuts, roots, fish, animals, grasshoppers, and yellow jackets | |
| | Read to learn how the Indians obtained acorns, and how they prepared them for food. See film showing the process | |
| | Decide to play preparing acorn mush | Film - Bread from Acorns - 266 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | Learn how to use the mortar and pestle for grinding acorns. | Pictures<br>Indians of California. Food (22) |
| | Decide to incorporate preparing acorn mush in a later play of California Indian life. | Filmstrip - Early California Indians |
| How did the Indians preserve their food? | Discover the types of acorn granaries that were used. Discuss the ingenuity of the Indians in building storehouses for acorns. | |
| | Realize that the early Indians used foods that required little preserving. | |
| How did the Indians obtain meat and fish? | Some of the children have discovered that clubs, snares, spears, and bows and arrows were used to obtain meat and fish. | Use references cited above |
| | Decide to make a chart of the most important Indian foods in the different sections of California. | |

Suggestion for a chart

| Coastal Indians | Mountain and Valley Indians | Desert Indians |
|---|---|---|
| Clams, abalone, mussels<br>Salmon, trout, eels, sea otters<br>Acorns, wild grains, clover | Berries, roots, acorns, grass seeds, wild onions, wild oats<br>Rabbit, squirrel, deer, antelope<br>Salmon, trout, eels<br>Pinon nuts, manzanita berries, horse chestnuts | Roots, cactus seeds, fruit<br>Mesquite beans, acorns<br>Dried snake meat<br>Pinon nuts, dates<br>Nearly all living things: grasshoppers, snakes, mice, insects |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| To incorporate food acquisition in the dramatic play | With the chart completed, an activity may be interesting for fixing these learnings. Children may decide to hunt or fish the way the Indians did. Let the class guess what food is being obtained for the tribe. | Books<br>1. Michaelis, Social Studies In a Democracy, pp. 386-387<br>2. Richards, California Yesterdays p. 19, under Things To Do |
| | Engage in dramatic play | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| To make tools and utensils | Following the play, the children may decide there is a need for baskets, bows and arrows, traps, spears, lifting sticks, wedges, and other materials<br><br>In discussing the play which has been out-doors, the children may decide to add to their play. | Books continued 7<br>3. Christopher, Basketry<br>4. Hunt, W.B., Indian Craft, pp. 75-77, basketry<br>5. Hunt, W.B. Indian and Camp Handicraft, pp. 24-25 (Bows and Arrows) |
| To find out about the different types of homes in which the Indians lived before the mission period:<br><br>Wickiup<br>Cellar house<br>Sweat house<br>Redwood plank house<br>Assembly house | Gather information by reading, looking at pictures and reviewing the slides<br><br>Find that climate and materials available in the region influenced the types of homes built.<br><br>Note that the wickiup was common to most sections.<br><br>Decide to draw pictures of wickiups and evaluate the pictures.<br><br>Learn about the plank houses of redwood built by the northern Indians.<br><br>Learn that every Indian village had a temescal or sweat house.<br><br>While studying about these various houses, the children may raise the question as to what tools the Indians used to split logs and branches. | Slides<br>Early California History (2x2)<br><br>Pictures<br>Indians of California, Village Life - 510<br><br>Books<br>Buell, California Stepping-Stones, pp. 9-10<br>Ewing, When California Was Young, pp. 34, 14-15<br>Flower, A Child's History of California, pp. 15-16<br>Hunt, California, the Golden, pp. 14-15-16<br>Richards, California Yesterdays, pp. 22-27<br>Underhill, Indians of Southern California, pp. 7-10 |
| To find out about the implements, weapons, and utensils of the Indians | Examine exhibits more closely<br><br>Look at pictures of tools and weapons<br><br>Notice that pictures show that Indian weapons and utensils were not made of metal.<br><br>Decide to compile a list of Indian implements, weapons, and utensils, together with their uses. | Buell, California Stepping-Stones pp. 3-4<br>Ewing, When California Was Young, pp. 6, 9-10<br>Flower, A Child's History of California, pp. 18-19<br>Richards, California Yesterdays, pp. 28-37<br>Underhill, Indians of Southern California, pp. 19-30 |

CHART SUGGESTION

| IMPLEMENTS | |
|---|---|
| **Object** | **Use** |
| Stone hatchets | Cutting and hunting |
| Flaked knives | Hunting, cutting hides, grasses |
| Stone hammers | Pounding and hammering |
| Drills | Drilling holes in skins, wood, bark |
| Elkhorn wedges | Splitting logs |
| Mussel-shell adz | Hollowing out logs for canoes |
| Bone awls | Punching holes in hides and bark |
| Scraping stones | Scraping hides |

| UTENSILS | |
|---|---|
| **Object** | **Use** |
| Fire sticks | Starting fires |
| Fire stones | Boiling water |
| Mortar and pestle | Grinding acorns and seeds |
| Metate and mano | Grinding acorns and seeds |
| Baskets | Gathering seeds and acorns |
| | Winnowing |
| | Cooking |
| Gourds | Holding water |

| WEAPONS | |
|---|---|
| **Object** | **Use** |
| Atlatl | Hunting small game |
| Bows and arrows | Hunting large game |
| Rabbit clubs | Killing rabbits |
| Nets and snares | Hunting large game and fish |
| Forked hunting sticks | Grasping fur of small game |
| Forked fishing sticks | Spearing fish |

The information obtained about Indian weapons also give interesting accounts of the way Indian men hunted. This may lead the children to plan a rabbit drive and a deer hunt, or to make some of the wooden tools, weapons, and baskets.

An evaluation of the hunting play may bring out the need to find out about other occupations of the Indian men, women, and children, before dramatizing a day in an Indian village.

Christopher, Basketry
Hunt, Indiancraft, pp. 75-77 (basketry)
Hunt, Indian and Camp Handicraft, pp. 26-27 (Bows and arrows)
Kirk, Our Indian Heritage (colored)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| To find out more about the activities of the Indian men, women, and children<br><br>Why did the Indians have their dances?<br>What musical instruments did they use?<br>What kind of games did they play?<br>How were their quarrels usually settled?<br>What were their religious beliefs?<br>What did the shamna or medicine man do for their tribe?<br>(The shaman was a religious leader; he taught the people the songs and dances that were part of the ceremonies to keep the village safe; he was also responsible for the health of the Indians. Medicine was prepared from herbs and plants. Rituals and ceremonies were performed by him. When a person was ill, he was locked in the sweat house and stayed there until he was dripping wet. He would then dive into a stream of cold water. "Often it cured him, but more often it killed him.") | Study pictures and read books to gather information<br><br>Draw pictures of activities of the Indians<br><br>Share and evaluate the pictures<br><br>Make tom-toms from wood and stretched skins. Make creative dances<br><br>Sing Indian songs<br><br>Play Indian games: - hop and pole game; game of chance.<br><br>Dramatize a scene in which Indians from different villages settle a quarrel.<br><br>(The Indians of California were peace-loving people. If the Indians from two or more villages quarreled, the quarrel was usually settled by a meeting of chiefs If they were fighting, it was followed by a council meeting in which the dispute was settled.)<br><br>Listen to Indian legends or read several to show that story-telling was a favorite entertainment of the Indians.<br><br>Listen to tape recording about Indian dances and discover that dancing was not primarily for amusement but for ceremonial occasions.<br><br>Decide to incorporate some of these activities into their dramatization by playing an Indian feast day with a neighboring tribe invited to join in the fun<br><br>Plans for the feast day:<br>Send a messenger to invite the neighboring tribe<br>Prepare the food | Books 9<br>Flower, A Child's History of California, pp. 2-22<br>Richards, California Yesterdays, pp. 12-52<br><br>Underhill, Indians of Southern California, pp. 30-55<br>Allen, Through the Year With Crafts, pp. 4-5 (Drums)<br>Hunt, Indian Crafts and Lore, pp. 94-96 (Drums)<br>Hunt, Indian and Camp Handicraft, pp. 24-25 (Tom-toms)<br><br>Music<br>See Supplement<br><br>Book<br>Mott, Legends and Lore of Long Ago.<br><br>Tape, Dance of the Acorns, CC-12<br><br>Use materials the children have made. |

Dress in tribal array

Enjoy competitive games and sports

Trade with the visitors

Exchange news and share legends, songs, and dances with the guests

Enjoy the feast

Evaluate the dramatization

The children may feel that their knowledge of early California Indian life is adequate. They may discuss and summarize their findings and decide that:

California Indians were peace loving and happy

They learned to use all of the many kinds of food their land gave them

They learned to dry food and store it safely for the winter months

They had a form of government and lived at peace with their neighbors

They had the basic things which people need to enjoy life, such as food, houses, clothing, tools, religion, music, games, work

## STATE TEXTBOOKS

### New Series

California Yesterdays, Richards
California Mission Days, Bauer
California Rancho Days, Bauer
California Gold Days, Bauer
Long Ago Stories of California, Rambeau

### Old Series

California Beginnings, Hoffman
A Child's History of California, Flower
Early California, Richards
The Rush For Gold, Beals

Teacher's Guide to Education in Later Childhood. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1957. Chapter 8, "Helping Children to Grow Through a Study of California," pp. 173-208.

## GENERAL
(Useful throughout unit)

California Stepping-Stones, Buell
California Pageant, Cleland
California, Dawson
When California Was Young, Ewing
California, Hunt
New California the Golden, Hunt
The Story of California, Lewis
The Story of California, McNeer
Golden Book of California, Shapiro
Docas, Indian of Santa Clara, Snedden

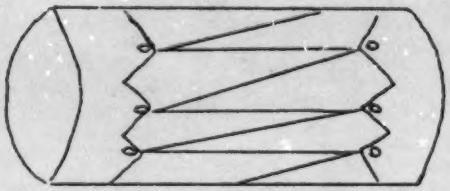
## I. INDIANS

Allen, Through the Year with Crafts
Bailey, Picture Book of California
Bleeker, The Mission Indians of California
Brown, Chumash Indians
Chandler, Young Hawk
Christopher, Basketry
Cloud, On the Trails of Yesterday
Falk, Tohi, a Chumash Indian Boy
Fisher, Stories California Indians Told
Hughes, Jess Smart and His Yokuts
Hunt, Indian and Camp Handicraft
Hunt, Indian Crafts and Lore
Hunt, Indiancraft
Kirk, Our Indian Heritage
Mott, Legends and Lore of Long Ago
O'Dell, Island of the Blue Dolphins
Robinson, The Story of Ventura County (Title Insurance and Trust Company)
Underhill, Indians of Southern California

| | MOVIES | FILMSTRIPS | SLIDES |
|---|---|---|---|
| I. INDIANS | | | |
| | 266 Bread From Acorns | California History - Reels 5,6<br>Early California Hide Curing<br>Early California Indians | Early California History |
| II. EXPLORERS | | | |
| | 681 Christopher Columbus | California<br>Columbus<br>Drake | California History |
| | ML1296 Sir Francis Drake's Life and Voyage | New World Is Discovered | |
| III. MISSIONS | | | |
| | 271 Mission Life | California History - Reels 3,4 | California History |
| | 414 Missions of California | California Mission Indians | California Missions - 40 sl. |
| | ML-1292 Along El Camino Real (Present day) | California Missions | California Missions - 12 sl. (Life and Customs) |
| | 272 Candle Making | | |
| IV. RANCHOS | | | |
| | 596 Rancho | Early California Hide Curing | |
| | 967 Fremont, John C. | | |
| V. GOLD RUSH | | | |
| | 163 Placer Gold | California History - Reel 7 | Map Slide of California |
| | 919 Ghost Towns of the Mother Lode | Golden Gate to the West<br>Gold Mining | |
| | ML - 493 California's Golden Beginnings | Gold! On to California<br>Gold Prospecting | |
| | ML - 1605 Gold Rush Days | | |
| | MS - 270 Golden West | | |
| | 733 Cape Horn Passage to California | | |

| | PICTURES, POSTERS, MAPS | TAPES | EXHIBITS |
|---|---|---|---|
| I. | INDIANS | | |
| 559 | California Indians | Dance of the Acorns | Basket |
| 214 | Early California Indians | | Cradle Board |
| 607 | Indians, Arrow Making | | Mortar and Pestle |
| 608 | Indians, Basket Making | | Stone Ax |
| 609 | Indians, Food | | |
| 610 | Indians, Village Life | | |
| Poster | California Indian Tribes | | |
| Map | California (Relief) | | |
| II. | EXPLORERS | | |
| 90 | Discovery, Exploration, and Settlement | Christopher Columbus | Early California Flags |
| 747 | Explorers of the Southwest | Dragon of the Pacific (Drake) | Galleon (14th Century) |
| 735 | California's Fourteen Historic Flags | | |
| Map | Discovery and Exploration | | |
| III. | MISSIONS | | |
| 5 | Adobe Bricks | | Mission Floor Tile |
| 9 | Mission Life | | Oxcart |
| 7 | Missions of California | | Oxcart with Ox |
| 304 | Southern California Missions | | Loom |
| 657 | Twenty-one California Missions | | Candle Mold |
| 707 | Northern California Missions | | |
| 745 | California and Mission Indians | | |
| Map | Mission Period | | |
| 11 | Candle Making | | |
| Posters | Missions (Request specific one) | | |
| IV. | RANCHOS | | |
| 6 | Tortilla Making | | Branding Iron |
| 313 | Early California Rancho | | Ranchero's Hat |
| 659 | Reata Maker | | |
| V. | GOLD RUSH | | |
| 52 | Placer Gold | | Gold Scales |
| 212 | Early California Store and Community | | Gold Town (Diorama) |
| 449 | Early California Scenes | | Covered Wagon |
| Map | Gold Rush Days | | Miner's pan |

Indian Rattle



**Rattles:**

Rattles are hollowed out small gourds which have been partly filled with rice or dried beans. Each has a handle inserted or attached. The constant swish of the rattle is typical accompaniment, or the sound of the rattle keeping time to dancers' steps, or as a rhythmic accompaniment to the singing of songs.

Complete directions for making are given on pages 12-14, "Creative Music in the Home", by Coleman.

**Drums:**

Indian barrel drums, chopping bowl drum, nail-keg drum. Complete directions for making on pages 29-36 "Creative Music in the Home" by Coleman.

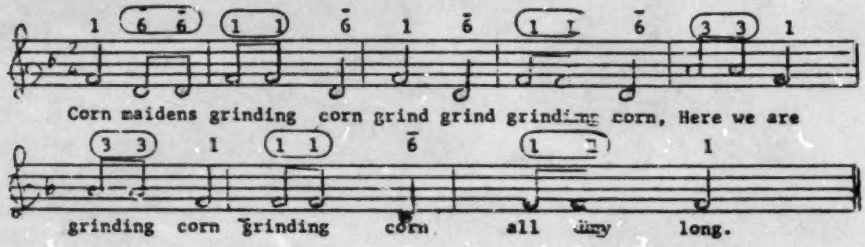
**Pan-Pipes and castanets:**

The book "Pre-historic Man of the Santa Barbara Coast" by David Banks Rogers, tells us that the Indian ritualistic dances were either performed by or led by a medicine man who clicked castanets, formed of sea shells, cemented together with asphaltum and enclosing a few olivella (pebbles) shells.

"Whistles" of bones, four in a group of varying lengths and sizes were also used by the medicine man. Mr. Rogers feels he is correct in stating that this is the first instance of pan-pipes being associated with North America.

Directions for making reed pipes on page 241, "Creative Music in the Home" by Coleman.

## CORN GRINDING SONG




## Tonette Fingerings for [illegible] SONGS

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| T | T | T | T | T | T | O |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | O | O |
| 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | O | O | O |
| 3 | O | 3 | 3 | O | O | O |
| O | O | 1 | 1 | O | O | O |
| O | O | 2 | 2 | O | O | O |
| O | O | O | 3 | O | O | O |
| O | O | O | O | O | O | O |

# APPENDIX C

Permission from
Helen P. Doolin
For Use of Her
Copyrighted Monograph,
"Social Studies Techniques",
1969

Camarillo, California

I herewith grant permission to Bonnie Davidson to include in her California Lutheran Collge Master's thesis as an appendix my copyrighted teacher's guide entitled "Social Studies Techniques", dated 1969, and to summarize this method in her text as she sees fit.

Helen P. Doolin — Sept. 21, 1976

HELEN P. DOOLIN — Date

Helen Doolin

APR 09 1980

# SOCIAL STUDIES TECHNIQUES

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# SOCIAL STUDIES TECHNIQUES

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## CONCEPTS

Specific concepts must be developed at every grade level. Initiation of a unit, construction, research, dramatic representation are all for the purpose of developing concepts which will help students gain not only subject matter information but an understanding and appreciation of the values important in each area of learning. Therefore, the teacher must have in mind the concepts she wants children to gain in each lesson.

Some concepts might include:

1. Hard work is honorable.
2. Freedom and responsibility go hand in hand.
3. Individuals are important.
4. Good will toward others is fundamental.
5. Cooperation is essential for getting things done.
6. Individual enterprise promotes growth.
7. Qualifications of a nominee for office are more important than friendship.
8. Self-control is accordance with group welfare is a significant aspect of democracy.
9. Good human relations are the result of integrity.
10. One earns the right to give advice by taking advice and wisely using it.

(See County and State units for specific concepts to be developed with each unit.)

## INITIATIONS

GRADE TWO - The Ranch (Citrus)

I. Arranged Environment
   - A. Realia
     1. Barn
     2. Wind machine (child made)
     3. Two or three trees in grove
     4. Two trucks (one a flat bed)
     5. Empty box
     6. Two or three pipe stem people
     7. Orange crate (1 1/2" X 3")
     8. Orange picker's sack and gloves
   - B. Books
   - C. Bulletin board display
   - D. Long piece butcher paper on wall
   - E. Tools and pieces of lumber
   - F. Music center
   - G. Science or Reading bulletin board

II. Response to environment (Not previously seen by children)
   - A. Invite class to explore room
     1. Decide signal for returning to seats
     2. Encourage children to look at and play with objects
   - B. Class explores

1. Some play with floor objects
2. Some look at books, tools, etc.

C. At signal children return to circle

III. Organization for study

A. Discussion:

Teacher: Did you have fun with floor things?
Child: Yes.
Child: I didn't have anything to play with.
Teacher: Then you need more things.
Teacher: I saw some of you looking at the big sack. Do you know what it is for?
Children: For oranges, I guess.
Child: What is this? (Pointing to wind machine)
Teacher: Maybe we could find out.

(Since some of you have questions maybe we should list some of them.)

B. Our questions:

1. What is the sack for?
2. What are the gloves for?
3. What is this wheel thing for? (wind machine)
4. What are the men doing here? (after seeing picture of fumigation.)
5. Can we make trucks with the wood?

C. Our Needs:

1. More trucks
2. More trees
3. More people
4. More boxes
5. Some sacks
6. Ladders

IV. Evaluation:

Teacher: Do we have some things to learn about an orange grove?
Teacher: Do we need to make some things so we can all work in an orange grove?

GRADE FOUR - Early California Rancho

I. Initiation: (Rancho as example)

A. Arranged environment

1. Pictures of Rancho life effectively arranged on two bulletin boards
2. Books
3. Realia
   a. Pottery dishes
   b. Branding iron
   c. Hat
   d. Serape

e. Small carreta
f. Riata
g. Shawl

4. Butcher paper on wall

B. Exploration of environment
1. Invite children to look at and try on things in environment
2. Come to seats at given signal
3. Children explore

C. Reaction to environment
1. Discuss what seen and done
Student: This is a keen rope
Student: That isn't a rope - it is leather
Student: (Serape) Is this for a man or a woman?
etc.
2. Our questions:
a. How is this rope made?
b. For what is it used?
c. How did they use these iron letters?
d. Could we make some of these things?
e. What did they use this cart for?
f. What work did they do on the rancho?
g. What were houses like?

D. Read: Story of Rancho Days
1. Invite group to use realia and BE early California Ranch people
2. Do dramatic representation
a. Evaluate - good things
b. Evaluate - learning needs
c. Evaluate - construction needs

E. Decide to list needs and form committees to make things
1. Committees:
a. Carreta
b. Corridor
c. Costumes
d. Accessories: dishes, brooms, decorations
e. Food
f. Rodeo: branding irons, riatas, hides
g. Oven
h. Mural
2. Choose committees (1st and 2nd choice)

II. Construction

A. Committee organization
1. Choose chairman
2. Decide what to make
3. List materials needed
a. From school
b. From home

B. Chart committees and construction to be done

C. Committee Realia Construction

D. Observation check sheet

GRADE 5 - Colonial Life (Some areas of grade 6 lend themselves to Dramatic Representation)

I. Arranged Environment - Grade 5 - Pilgrims

A. Realia
1. Crates stacked like a fireplace
2. Colonial costume
3. One trencher and spoon
4. Spinning wheel
5. One flintlock rifle
6. Regular classroom table
7. Kettle on floor of fireplace
8. Sampler
9. Coonskin cap
10. Three legged stool

B. Books

C. Bulletin Board picture displays

D. Long piece of blank butcher paper on one wall

E. Tool box and pieces of lumber

F. Music center

II. Response to environment (which children have not seen previously)

A. Invite class to explore room and use realia which they see.
1. Decide signal which will call them back to their seats.
2. Encourage total participation.

B. Class explores
1. Group in home corner puts on costume, uses gun, talks together, etc.
2. Some look at books, tools, etc.

C. At signal children return to seats.

D. Discussion:
Teacher: Did you enjoy the things you saw?
Student: Yes, I had fun with the gun. Is it an "Old Betsy"?
Teacher: Maybe we could find out.
Class: I didn't get a chance to play with the gun.
Teacher: Would it be more fun with more guns?
Class: Yes

Child: What is this for? (pointing to the trencher)
Child: They ate out of those.
Teacher: Maybe we could find the name of it.
Child: Those boxes would make a good fireplace, but they didn't set the kettle right on the fire, did they?
(many other questions will arise and needs evolve.)
Teacher: Since some of you have questions, maybe we should list some of them.

III. Organization Study

A. Our questions
1. What is the real name of the gun?
2. How did it work?
3. What is the name of the wooden dish?
4. What is this embroidery?
5. How did pioneers cook?
6. How did they build their houses?
7. How did the pilgrims know where to land?
8. How could many people live on a boat as little as the one in that picture?
9. Why is the blank paper on the wall?
10. If they sat on log stools, what kind of tables did they have?

(Other questions will come from class on initiation day and following each dramatic play and construction lesson)

B. Our Needs
1. More guns
2. More dishes
3. A fireplace
4. More clothing
5. Furniture

IV. Evaluation:
Teacher: Do we have lots to do and to learn?
Teacher: How can we find out answers to our questions?
Child: Read
Child: See films
Child: Go to a museum
Child: Look at pictures
Teacher: How can we get the things we need?
Child: Make them
Child: Br[illegible] material to sew
Teacher: How can we best work together to make what we need?
Child: Have committees
Child: Choose a good chairman

V. Setting up Committees

A. Needs are listed on board

B. Children choose committee on which to work

1. During the lesson or
2. On slips of paper first and second choices are listed
   a. Teacher organizes committees from choices.
   b. Committees are charted

C. Committees meet
   1. Choose chairman
      a. Discuss qualifications of a good chairman
      b. List on board, previous to group meeting
   2. Prepare list of material needed for construction
      a. Give list to teacher
      b. Decide tools needed
      c. Discuss how to make, and realize need to find out how

D. If need arises or when it arises, class sets standards for work. A good committee member:
   1. Co-operates with group
   2. Keeps busy
   3. Works quietly
   4. Accomplishes something, etc.

VI. Additional activities suggested for construction and dramatic representation

A. Candle making
B. Cooking a colonial dish
C. Making a quilt and holding a quilting bee
D. Constructing a log table and a long bed
E. Making a straw mattress
F. Holding a corn-husking bee
G. Holding a house-warming bee
H. Painting a mural as background for farming, hunting, or living room
I. Making horn books
J. Constructing a spinning wheel
K. Weaving on a hand-made loom
   1. These can be a part of dramatic representation, some one time and some another.
   2. To make Johnny Cake and serve it at a meal is fairly simple.

VII. Suggested culminations

A. Dramatic representation with a quilting bee, and singing songs. (If during Westward Movement, add dances.)

B. Dramatic representation with a corn-husking bee

C. During study of Southern Colonies dance a Minuet

Note: This same type of initiation with committee planning can be used from grades one through six. (In grade six it best applies to Mexico or a Brazilian rubber plantation.) Questions and committee planning will vary with the area and maturity of the group. At all levels in most committees, while

working and planning together, each child will make his own article. In some cases several children will work together to construct one object.

## SPECIAL SUGGESTIONS FOR EIGHTH GRADE

I. Hold Constitutional Convention

- A. Portray leaders
- B. Find reasons for holding it
- C. Study problems
- D. Debate Compromises

II. Hold Sessions of House and Senate

- A. Organization
  1. One room set up as House of Representatives
  2. One room set up as Senate
  3. Elect officers; chaplain, pages, etc.
  4. Set up visitors' gallery
  5. Each student choose a state to represent
- B. Procedure
  1. Get lists of bills to come before Federal Legislature
     - a. Do research thru reading current material, interviewing, listening to speeches and commentators.
     - b. Formulate own opinions as to stand on issue and be able to debate intelligently on issues
  2. Read to find out procedures for conducting House and Senate meetings
  3. Keep Congressional Record
  4. Read to find out steps through which a bill goes before actual debate takes place
     - a. Write bills in legal form
     - b. Set up committees and study bills in proper committee
  5. Read to find out what happens after passage or defeat of bill
  6. Chart "How a Bill Becomes a Law" with stick figures on large mural paper.

III. Hold sessions of Supreme Court

- A. Decide on issue currently to come before Supreme Court
- B. Learn procedures

IV. Hold meeting of president's cabinet, considering current problems

V. During election year, vote on sample ballots

VI. Design posters showing privileges of Bill of Rights

VII. Rewrite Constitution in simpler language

VIII. Make dioramas to portray amendments

IX. Write and properly vote on amendments to school constitution

X. Chart

A. Parts and Members of Congress
B. Powers
C. How a bill becomes law
D. How Constitution is amended
E. Keep current news charts classifying news under correct governmental department.
(See Supplement to History of Democracy unit for other ideas.)

XI. Paint murals showing:

A. Growth of Democracy
B. Events leading up to and during Constitutional Convention
C. Freedoms under Constitution
D. Scenes from lives of American leaders
E. Powers of Congress

XII. Make Time Lines showing

A. Steps in Growth of Democracy
B. Development of Constitutional Amendments

XIII. Make maps

A. Pictorial
B. Geographical
C. Annexations
D. Political

XIV. The United Nations

A. Find out about historical events leading up to establishment of United Nations
B. Learn about United Nations organization, its functions and divisions
    1. Make pictorial chart showing work done by its six divisions, agencies, and commissions
    2. Collect newspaper and magazine articles and hold current events discussions
C. On a world map locate United Nations members with the country's flag
D. Read and dramatize simple stories, fold tales and folk songs of these countries
E. Do creative writing on their customs, everyday life and history
F. Hold Sessions of United Nations
    1. Security Council
    2. General Assembly
        a. Organize as with legislative departments
        b. Do detailed research on current issues to understand how a problem affects the specific nation student is

c. Debate issues and arrive at peaceful settlements

## BEGINNING CONSTRUCTION - PRIMARY

I. Have charts, showing steps in truck construction, displayed

II. Have lumber, nails and tools ready

A. Cut lumber in lengths so that three pieces (bed, etc.) can be cut from each
1. This eliminates handling of large pieces by small children

III. Look at finished truck

IV. Find piece which could be used for bed; for motor, etc.

V. Measure bed of truck

VI. Measure length on lumber and mark for sawing

VII. Show tools

VIII. Show work area

IX. When need arises set up standards for a good construction period

## PRIMARY CONSTRUCTION

I. Pre-planning by teacher

A. Materials ready and in place
1. Tool box in accessible area
2. Sawhorses stacked no more than three deep, two is best
3. Lumber in lumber boxes (or areas) by sizes
4. Nail box in accessible area with nails in compartment by sizes

B. Plans for ample space for working

II. Pre-planning with class

A. What is to be done
1. Does everyone know his job?
2. Is there a problem?
a. If child has one not solved day before, let him present it
b. Get solution from children

B. See new materials that were ordered
C. Know work areas
D. Review standards for work and signal for attention

III. Work Period
A. Excuse children by groups to:
1. Get sawhorses, tools
2. Get construction and begin work

B. Teacher circulates around room:
1. Noting concepts to be clarified
2. Helping child solve an urgent problem by:
a. Asking him a question or
b. Asking class to help in solution
3. Noting social needs
4. Noting standards to be improved

C. Signal
1. Warning signal - 3 minutes or more
2. All children stop work at next signal
3. Ask how they plan to clean up?
4. What to do when finished
(Put construction away or bring to seat if problem to be solved or specific accomplishment to show)

IV. Clean up

V. Evaluation
A. How worked
1. Note any standard to improve
2. Add new standard if needed

B. What accomplished

C. Problems
1. Problem presented to group
2. Problem solved by
a. Group
b. Seeing a picture
c. Checking a chart
3. If not solved, list as a need for further research

D. List material needs

## COMMITTEE REALIA CONSTRUCTION

I. Pre-planning by teacher
A. Tool box and sawhorses in accessible area, if to be used
B. Special area designated for each committee
C. Materials, ordered previous day, in area where needed
D. Folders or boxes in which work is kept in committee working area
E. Provision made for ample working space

II. Pre-planning with class
A. What is to be done
1. Does everyone know his job? - Chairman

2. If there is an unsolved problem, class help in solution

B. Indicate new materials are in place

C. Know work areas

D. Review standards for work and signal for attention

III. Work period
A. Excuse by groups to go to work areas

B. Teacher circulate to note:
1. Concepts needing clarification
2. Helping with problem by:
a. Questioning group to encourage their own solution of the problem
b. Bringing class into solution if it is urgent
c. Noting work habits

C. Signal
1. Warning signal indicating 5 minutes more to work
2. Regular signal for all work to stop

D. Clean up and list needs for next work period

IV. Evaluation
A. How group worked

B. Committee chairman report
1. Accomplishments
2. Future plans
3. Needs for more reference work
4. Needs for materials - list given to teacher
5. Problems needing solution presented to class for solution

C. Teacher adds to list
1. Questions for reference reading
2. Additional Standards, if any

OBSERVATION CHECK SHEET FOR CONSTRUCTION LESSON

I. The Environment
A. Has the teacher arranged the environment so it will be conductive to worthwhile construction?
1. Have sufficient materials been provided?
2. Are tools easily accessible?
3. Have sawhorses been provided?
4. Has clean-up equipment been provided?
5. Has reference material been provided?
6. Is there ample room for safe construction

II. The Construction
A. The children

1. Are children busy?
2. Are they handling tools safely?
3. Are they measuring or trying to measure?
4. Are they free to create for themselves?
5. Are children accomplishing something?
6. Are they solving problems?
7. Are children developing good habits and attitudes?
8. Is there evidence of social co-operation and group living?
9. Are children sharing ideas as well as materials?
10. Are the children enjoying themselves?

B. The Teacher
1. Is she alert to social growth needs of individuals?
2. Is she guiding the children in correct use of tools?
3. Does she ask thought-provoking questions rather than tell the child just what to do?
4. Is she alert to the work needs of the children?
5. Does she watch all children?

III. The Discussion

A. Does the teacher guide the discussion so that construction levels will be raised?

B. What provision is made for clarifying concepts?

C. How does teacher help children to recognize needs, and guide them to purpose to satisfy those needs?

D. Does the discussion evidence democratic social living?

E. How is discussion guided so as to provide for wide participation?

F. Is the discussion on-going?

G. How does the teacher guide children towards problem solving?

IV. The Cleanup

A. Is there a definite signal for stopping?

B. How does the teacher guide children towards quick, quiet, efficient clean-up?

C. Are there definite places for material?

D. Does teacher stand where she can get over-all view and see needs for improvement?

E. Do all children share in the cleaning?

F. What do children do when everything is cleaned?

## DRAMATIC REPRESENTATION

I. Pre-planning by the teacher
   A. Have accessible space available
   B. Have accessory materials available
   C. Have reference materials (pictures, stories) to clarify concepts

Dramatic Representation - Westward Movement
(Same plan applies to all grade level areas)

II. Pre-planning with class
   A. Plan and list activities that may happen during day
      1. Get up in morning
      2. Father and boys get water and feed animals
      3. Mother and girls cook breakfast
      4. Family eat breakfast and make plans for day
         a. Men help with a house raising
         b. Boys hunt and till fields
         c. Mother and daughters clean, weave, dip candles cook, sew samplers
         d. Younger children study horn book
      5. Eat supper and plan for corn-husking bee at night
      6. Guests come and husk corn
      7. Stranger arrives at door - Johnney Appleseed
      8. All dance and sing as evening closes

   B. Plan characters needed

   C. Choose characters

   D. Plan to re-enact plans with conversations, stopping at a signal

III. Play Period
   A. Class re-enacts plans

   B. Teacher notes concepts needing clarification

   C. At signal all stop and take seats

IV. Evaluation
   A. How they played
      1. Build chart if needed
         (Example: To be better pioneers)
         a. be serious pioneers
         b. talk about happenings of the time
         c. talk about weather, crops, house-raising, etc.
         d. center conversation from group to group
         e. read to find out more about pioneer life

   B. Discuss realistic activities

   C. Suggest ways to improve (Incorporate in above list)

Note: Dramatic representation should constantly bring needs for more research and more construction, until play is a representation of realistic living and conversation of the time. All learnings from research should be ev idenced in conversation and activities.

OBSERVATION CHECK SHEET FOR REPRESENTATION

I. The Environment

A. Is there ample space for acting?
B. Have materials been provided to stimulate the action?
C. Does the environment possess possibilities for enriching the action?

II. The Play

A. The Children
1. Is the play teacher-directed or child-purposed?
2. Are the children having fun?

Possible Activities

(These will be added to as reading and discussion continues)

Father and boys take guns and go to hunt wild turkey.
Mother and girls cook the simple food to go with turkey.
When finished they weave or work on samplers.
Grandmother weaves.
Grandfather works on some piece of furniture.
When men return, the turkey is cleaned and fixed. Put in kettle and hung over the fire.
Father and boys take axes and go to the forest to find the Yule Log.
They look around for a good tree. Chop it down and drag the heavy log homeward through the cold snow.
Guests arrive for the evening.
The men build a big fire and put the log in the fireplace. (If it is huge, they put one end in, and as it burns, push it farther in.)
Grandfather explains the Yule Log Tradition.

The Yule Log is put into the fire on Christmas Eve. It is allowed to burn throughout the night. If the log completely burns by morning, the year to come will be a happy one. If it fails to burn out there will be trouble during the coming year.

As the women weave and sew--for Pilgrims were always busy--Grandfather tells another Christmas story. (Find some traditional one of England if possible.)
The people all join in singing religious type Christmas songs.
Cookies and milk are served.
Guests go home, wishing that the Yule Log will burn out.
The family goes to bed, leaving two of the boys to watch the log,

and keep pushing it into the fire.
The boys watch and soon after dawn they find the log has completely burned out.
They joyfully call the family and announce the good news.
The family comes down and as the women begin the simple breakfast and table setting, the boys go for water.
All the family sit down to breakfast and say a simple prayer of thanks.
Close with the singing of a song of Thanks.

## RESEARCH LESSON

(Primary Grades)

I. Pre-planning by teacher

A. Multi-reading texts in one area
B. Teacher write-downs in one area
C. Tape with answer follow-up sheets at listening center
D. Pictures and lined newsprint in circle area
E. Note card forms available for groups A and B
   1. Half sheet of regular penmenship paper with headings, or

Book title
Topic

   2. Mimeographed sheet, same size with 3/4" spaces.
F. Questions to be answered charted.

II. Pre-planning with class

A. Go over questions to be answered by each group
B. Go over procedure for taking notes.
   1. A number of directed lessons should be done with groups ready for independent reading and note taking before they work alone.
   2. Top groups in second and third grades can learn research techniques; some first graders can.
C. Assign groups to areas
   1. Multi-texts
   2. Write-downs
   3. Listening posts
      a. Listen to recording
      b. Filling in blanks correctly should give answers to questions
   4. Last group to circle with teacher

III. Work Period

A. Children read and take notes in phrases, or listen on ear phones and fill in blanks.
B. One group go to circle with teacher:
   1. Look at pictures to find answers to questions
   2. Teacher chart information children glean from pictures.

C. At close of period books returned to proper places
   1. Listening follow-ups put in folders
   2. Note cards clipped together and put in folders
   3. Folders filed in class box.

IV. Evaluation

A. Information learned
B. Problems in research
C. Plans for next lesson
   1. More research
   2. Dramatic representation
   c. Construction

## RESEARCH LESSON

(Intermediate and Upper Grades)

I. Pre-planning by teacher

A. Multi-reading texts arranged in three areas
   1. More difficult books in one area
   2. Easier reading books in another area
   3. Pictures with captions in still another area
B. Correct note forms for grade, in sufficient abundance, accessible for all students
   1. See appendix for correct form
   2. Teach several directed lessons in note taking before children do research on their own.
C. Committee questions categorized and charted

II. Pre-planning with class

A. Go over questions or topics to be answered during research reading period.
B. Review briefly importance of recording important facts only, in phrases
C. Call attention to areas where reference material is placed
D. Recall that hands be raised for help
   1. Everyone do reference reading on the same day
   2. Stay in own seats for reference reading; committee meet only to organize reports.
E. Get books by groups.

III. Work period

A. Children read and take notes
B. Teacher moves about room giving help in a quiet voice
   1. Quiet voice helps to maintain quiet working atmosphere
   2. Teacher checks kind of notes being taken
   3. Teacher notes needs for reteaching correct note-taking
C. At the end of period books are returned to proper place, and note cards placed in individual envelopes.

1. Clip all cards for a given topic together
2. Envelopes kept in desk or in a class file box

IV. Evaluation

A. Check accomplishment--number of books used; number of questions answered
B. Problems
C. Plans for next lesson
   1. More research
   2. Committee report planning
   3. Committee construction
   4. Dramatic representation

V. Follow-up research

A. Outline from notes
   1. Notes have been clipped together by topic
   2. Each topic is a Roman Numeral
   3. Outline should be short--limit to two pages

B. Write manuscript following sequence of outline
   1. Refer to notes for details
   2. Write in own words
   3. Be concerned with margins, penmanship, valuable, neatly placed illustrative material
   4. Write in detail from points in outline
   5. Include bibliography, or

C. Give oral report from outline
   1. Practice report so it can be given with only rare glances at outline
   2. Use realia, charts, graphs or maps to illustrate report.

## DIRECTED RESEARCH LESSON

(used only to teach technique. After children use technique, they do multi-text reading, taking their own notes on cards in phrases.)

I. Teacher preparation

A. Make large 18" x 24" tagboard "note cards" with correct heading for grade level.
B. Place large "note cards" on chalk board
C. Mimeograph several paragraphs from the same pages of a book to which child has access.

II. Pre-planning with class

A. Pass out reading material and note cards
B. Explain reason for lesson

III. Work Period

A. Teacher fills in information on large "note cards" as children give it to her.
B. All children read paragraph
C. Individuals give main facts to teacher who writes them on large paper cards.
   1. If given in sentence teacher gets that child or another to reduce information to a phrase.
   2. Put three to four facts on a card at fourth grade level. Four to five at fifth grade; five to six at sixth grade; more at seventh and eighth grade
   3. Put one phrase only on a line
   4. All phrases on a card should refer to the topic listed at top of the card
D. After all large cards are filled in, children copy information on their individual cards.
   1. Clip all cards of same topic together
   2. Put cards in individual envelopes.

IV. Evaluation

A. How well technique has been understood
B. Needs for further direction

PRIMARY NOTE FORM

SUBJECT: Citrus Fruit

TITLE: Nursery

NAME: _____ PAGES: _____

FACTS:

cultivates land carefully

young trees--seedlings

Nurserymen study for years

cut like "t"

bud tied to root stock

good stock cut off

good trees in nursery

need more room

outside grow strong

water land

TEACHER CHART FORM

Facts

cut oranges at stem

wear gloves--not bruise

picker counts boxes

fumigate at night--kills bugs

gas--heavy sheets

Stand pipes for irrigation

Copy on fact sheets

LISTENING POST LESSON

Directions: Put the sentences in order. After you have put the sentences in order, please cut them out and paste them. One in each box on the drawing paper.

_____ The nursery man buds the root stock.

_____ The pickers empty their sacks in the field boxes.

_____ The fruit is taken to the packing house.

_____ The grower cultivates his grove.

_____ The grower turns on the heaters and the wind machine.

_____ The orange trees are balled.

_____ The grower fertilizes his groves.

_____ The grower irrigates his groves.

_____ The grower fumigates, sprays or dusts his trees.

NOTE FORM - GRADE FOUR

_____

Topic or Question

_____ _____

Student's Name Date

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

NOTE FORM - GRADES FIVE - SIX

_____ _____ _____

Author Title of Book Pages

_____ _____

Topic Student's Name

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

NOTE FORM - GRADES SEVEN - EIGHT

Author _____ Title _____

Where Published _____ Publishing Company _____

Date _____ Topic _____ Pages _____

# APPENDIX D

## Teacher Resource References
## Including
## Social Studies Curriculum Services
## And
## Publications Relevant to
## Social Studies Teaching

## APPENDIX D, PART I:

## SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM SERVICES

Part I is an alphabetical listing of organizations providing information and services for social studies/social science teaching.

ALERT, a Sourcebook of Elementary Curriculum Programs and Projects. Provides information on subjects such as American government, drug education, early childhood education, educational accountability and evaluation, affective education, etc. Available at UCLA Curriculum Center, Education Building, Room 340, Moore Hall.

Curriculum Advisory Service (CAS) Review. Evaluations of textbooks, tradebooks, supplementary materials. A bimonthly publication. 500 So. Clinton St., Chicago, IL, 60607.

CEDaR Catalogue, compiled by Council for Educational Development and Research, Inc., Suite 206, 1518 K St. N.W., Washington, D.C., 20005. Selected educational research and development programs and products which are completed and available for installation. CEDaR is available at UCLA Curriculum Center.

Education Development Center, Inc. (EDC), 55 Chapel St., Newton, Mass., 02160, a publicly supported, non-profit corporation engaged in education research and development. Publishes quarterly newsletter, EDC News, television programs, films, and on-site advisory program for teachers in school systems which are interested in shared funding of programs, for the purpose of introducing open education in their system.

Educational Research Council of America, Rockefeller Building, Cleveland, Ohio, 44113. Distributes materials concerned not only with what education is, but with what education ought to be. 50% discount on materials for full participating Council school systems, 25% for affiliated participating systems. Annually publishes Developmental Curriculum Materials Available.

ERIC and CIJE:

Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) of the National Institute of Education (NIE). Documents listed in ERIC reference catalogues can be purchased from ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS), P.O. Box 190, Arlington, Virginia, 22210, or from other sources listed in ERIC. ERIC reference catalogues are available at California Lutheran College Library. NIE publishes a monthly abstract journal, Resources in Education (RIE), which announces research reports and other non-journal literature on education. Routine searches for documentary material should begin with Reports announced in RIE. RIE reports can be furnished in microfiche or paper copy from ERDS, as with ERIC documents.

Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE) is published by MacMillan Information, 216R Brown St., Riverside, New Jersey, 08075. Articles announced in CIJE are not available from ERDS, and must be read in the journals containing them.

National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, a national affiliate of the National Education Association, provides the following services.

1. Publishes Social Education, the offical monthly journal of the NCSS.

2. Maintains the Curriculum Information Network CIN, which appears semi-annually in Social Education, and consists of reports of results of reader surveys concerning current issues in social studies education.

3. Issues Position Statements and Policy Statements.

   (a) Academic Freedom: NCSS Policy Statements, 1971, including "Academic Freedom and the Social Studies Teacher", "Academic Freedom: A Policy Statement", and "The NCSS Legal Defense Fund".

   (b) Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines, 2nd printing, 1973.

4. Publishes The Social Studies Professional, a newsletter.

5. Published "A Social Studies Professional Library", a compilation by John D. Haas, Sydney J. Meredith and Karen B. Wiley, in Social Education 40 (May 1976), pp. 291-300.

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc. (SSEC), 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado, 80302. Supported by the National Science Foundation, U.S. Office of Education, and private funding. Provides a forum in which social scientists and educators can exchange information and ideas at a variety of levels; disseminates analytical information on social studies/social science curricula. Following are the services provided by SSEC.

1. The ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education (ERIC/ChESS), for which SSEC is the contracting agency. ERIC/ChESS and SSEC jointly produce the following user services.

   (a) ERIC/ChESS Social Studies Curriculum Data Book, published annually, is an analytical guide to materials from nationally funded projects, innovative textbooks, games and simulations, etc. Available at UCLA Curriculum Center.

   (b) "Reference Sheets", which list ERIC document references, books, and materials annotations, and a list of applicable organizations on subjects requested by users.

   (c) Resource and Development Center (RDC) at Boulder, Colorado, headquarters. A "hands on" center with new social studies project materials, innovative textbooks, games and simulations, ERIC microfiche collection, professional library, and reference materials.

   (d) A "Computer Search Service" on requested topics.

   (e) Participates with SSEC in publication of major works in areas such as resources for teaching K-12 social studies/social science; reference works on social studies education, background trends and issues in the social sciences; and special topics such as accountability and coping with community controversy.

   (f) Community Users of the ERIC System (CUES) is published by ERIC/ChESS, along with Guidelines for ERIC Collection Holders to assist parents and community in use of ERIC.

2. Curriculum Materials Analysis System (CMAS), is an analytical system focusing on curriculum materials, which are the cheapest input into the educational process, in their relationship to teacher, student, and situation.

3. Newsletter, published quarterly by SSEC, containing "ChESS Board", information from ERIC/ChESS; "Looking At. . .", a resource sheet on "hot" topics for social studies educators. Order from Publications Orders care of SSEC.

Social Studies Schools Services Catalogue, 1000 Culver Blvd., Culver City, Los Angeles, 90230. Annual catalogue of teaching materials.

## APPENDIX D, PART II:

## PUBLICATIONS RELEVANT TO SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING

Part II is an alphabetical listing of publications in addition to the works listed in the Selected Bibliography, which were used as reference material for this thesis.

The Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., Taba Curriculum Development Project in Social Studies Final Report, published by Addison-Wesley at 2725 Sand Hill Road, Menlo Park, California, 94025, is available at Ventura County Schools Library. Teacher handbooks for this program have been in use in Ventura County, California, schools for the past few years. The Addison-Wesley series of teacher handbooks, activity books, and content materials was considered, but not adopted, for use as social studies textbooks by the California Stated Department of Education in 1976.

Allyn & Bacon, Inc., "Concepts and Inquiry" series of textbooks was adopted by the California State Department of Education in 1976 for use in social studies classes K-12 for the next textbook use period.

The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), 1701 K St. N.W., Suite 1100, Washington, D.C., 20006, publishes a professional journal, Educational Leadership; books and booklets on topics of immediate interest to educators; an annual national conference which brings over 6,000 educators together; and an annual yearbook on major educational concerns.

The California State Department of Education, Bureau of Publications, 721 Capitol Mall, Sacramento, California, 95814, publishes a directory entitled Selected Publications. The Social Sciences Education Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten and Grades One through Twelve, mentioned throughout the writer's thesis, may be obtained from this source.

Other pertinent documents for this thesis available from Selected Publications are (a) Teaching Gifted Children Social Sciences in Grades Four through Six, 1971; (b) Moral and Civic Education and Teaching about Religion, 1973; and A Handbook for Curriculum Frameworks, 1974.

DRICE Monograph No. 6, June 1974, from the Development and Research in Confluent Education Program at the University of California, Santa Barbara, written by Mark Phillips and Bettye Elmore. One of the functions was to sensitize teachers to the role of affect in the classroom. Gives teacher feedback on program.

Doolin, Helen P., "Social Studies Techniques", a monograph copyrighted in 1969, upon which this thesis is based. Available from the Ventura County Schools Library, Ventura, California.

Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1855 Folsom St., San Francisco, California, 94103. See particularly work of Ned Flanders and Greta Morine in "Responsive Teaching", including films and instruction manuals for fourth and fifth grade pupils. This material is available from the National Resource Dissemination Center, University of South Florida, Tampa, Florida, 33620.

International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Road, Newark, Delaware, 19711, publishes information on reading in the social studies, including A New Look at Reading in the Social Studies, Perspectives in Reading No. 12, 2nd printing. Edited by Ralph C. Preston.

Project PRIMES (Progress in Meeting Elementary Standards of NSEA, Title III), 1972-3. Includes a report on elementary social studies.

Rogers, Carl R., "Plan for Self-Directed Change in an Educational System" in Freedom to Learn (Rogers, 1969, pp. 303-342). A report on the implementation of this plan, based on encounter-group technique, is printed in New Perspectives on Encounter Groups (_____: Jossey-Bass, 1972). The report on Rogers' plan as implemented at Immaculate Heart Education System, Los Angeles, is written by Solomon and Bergon. Other authors who have included this study in their published work are William Coulson, Jack Fordyce, and Ray Weil.

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